The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 21, 1887.

The Week.

MR. EDWARD ATKINSON, in an interview published by the Boston *Herald*, says that the Inter-State Commerce Act, if it can be enforced, will have the effect to increase the average charge for railway transportation in the country—an effect precisely opposite to that which was intended. One of the examples cited by him is the increased charge on the wool of California, which must pay a much higher rate for carriage to the Eastern manufacturers than before. It is doubtful, indeed, if it can be carried at all by railway. If it cannot be so carried, it must come by water, and the vessel-owners will be able to charge any rate up to that which the Commerce Act compels the railway to charge. Probably the act will have the effect to increase the importation of foreign wool, for, as Mr. Atkinson observes, the low rates on the "long haul" have been brought about not by competition among the railways nor by competition of the railways with water routes, but "by the paramount competition of product with product in the principal markets." It is this and not any choice of their own which has given such low rates to the long haul on the wool and fruits of California, on the wheat of Dakota, the corn of Kansas, and the cotton of Texas. The very phrase "charging what the traffic will bear," Mr. Atkinson shows, grew out of the necessity of *lowering* the rates to meet this superior, this domineering competition of product with product in the markets, and not out of any supposed desire to raise the rate to the highest figure the merchant or manufacturer could pay.

When the Inter-State Commerce Bill was pending we pointed out the fact that the long and short-haul clauses would operate as an inter-State protective tariff. The Ohio wool-growers have not been slow to perceive its value in this sense. They are said to be preparing a protest against granting the petition of the California wool-growers, who have asked that the clause in question be suspended as to their product, representing that its enforcement would be absolutely ruinous to their industry. The Ohio wool-growers are alive to this fact also, and they are accordingly strenuous in insisting that the law be strictly enforced. The producers of raisins in California have discovered that the Commerce Act serves to nullify the tariff on foreign raisins by increasing the freight charge to Eastern markets to a point equal to the customs duty. The sugar-refiners on the Pacific coast, who have been enabled, by getting their raw sugar from the Hawaiian Islands free of duty, to send their product as far east as St. Louis, have likewise struck the snag of the Commerce Act, and have put in a petition that the long and short-haul clause be suspended as regards sugar, to which the Eastern refiners who pay duties equal to 100 per cent. ad valorem on raw sugar, have very properly objected. The salmon canneries of the Columbia River will be heard from soon, and it will be in order then for the fishermen on the Atlantic coast to stand up for a strict construction of the law.

The applications of the railway employees and of the travelling salesmen to the Commerce Commission, for a construction of the new law on the subject of free passes and free extra baggage, serve to show what an enormous deal of work the Commission are likely to have before them. The Supreme Court of the United States, with its four years' arrearages of undecided and unheard cases, will be a marvel of promptness and activity by comparison with the Commission. The two petitions present eight separate questions, and some of these are divisible into two or three parts. The Commission were enabled to answer all of them in a summary manner by saying that no authority had been given them to decide suppositious cases, but only those which come up in the practical working of the law. Thus the answers to the eight questions, with their variations, are merely deferred. They will all come up again, and must then be answered after more or less argument pro and con. Attention is drawn by the petition of the railway employees to the magnitude of the deadhead tax on the railways. It appears that passes are customarily granted to the employees of the railway and their "immediate families," also more or less to the employees of other railways, also to officers and employees of railways out of employment and seeking situations, also to associations of railway officers and employees travelling to and from their meetings and conventions, also to the immediate families of delegates to such conventions. In fact, it would seem that all railway officers and most railway employees have their "hats chalked" all over the United States. The Commerce Act is very stringent on the subject of discriminations in the transportation of passengers, and it makes no exception in favor of railway employees. The railway companies themselves appear to be nothing loath to observe this clause.

It would not be surprising if the next Congress should witness a struggle between the commercial classes of the country and the railways, the former seeking to repeal or essentially change the Commerce Act, and the latter to keep it in force. The great virtue of the act to the railways is that it prevents the secret cutting of rates. Such cutting has been the cause of the breaking of all the agreements to maintain rates in the past. It has undermined all the pools. It has driven pool commissioners frantic, and has led railway managers to doubt the very existence of virtue. Competition has been, and is always when freight is scarce, so savage that no dependence could be placed upon the word of anybody who had the authority to issue a way-bill or to make a freight contract. The pools, having no legal character and no standing in court, could not enforce their agreements against their own members. Consequently, they went to pieces almost as fast as they were formed, until Mr. Fink in desperation asked for a law of Congress to legalize and regulate such contracts, and was willing to make concessions in return for it at which railway managers would have stood aghast twenty years ago. The Commerce Act goes far towards supplying what Commissioner Fink wanted. It does not legalize pools. Indeed, it abolishes them. But it gives what no pool ever had before, viz., publicity, together with the power of the Sheriff and the Grand Jury to ascertain the truth and to punish the guilty.

The controversy between the principal Eastern and Western railroads on the question of paying commissions on the sale of passenger tickets undoubtedly has its mainspring in private and personal interests. It is said that at least $2,000,000 per year is involved in the dispute. This sum is now diverted from the treasuries of the railroads or the pockets of the travelling public to those of the commission men. If the commissions were not paid, the railroads would get the full fare, or they could afford to reduce passenger rates, and probably would do so whenever they should believe that the commission system was dead beyond hope of resurrection. Now, the question is, why do the Western roads fight so stubbornly to maintain the commission system? The Inter-State Commerce Law is flatly against it. If commissions can be paid for passengers, they can be paid for freight also, and to any extent, and the agent or broker can divide his commissions with the shippers in any way he chooses. In other words, the law may be completely nullified by making rebates at the point of shipment and calling them commissions. We cannot conceive of any motive for retaining the commission system in the West in the face of the law and in defiance of the protest of the Eastern roads, unless the commission men themselves are making a "square divide" with somebody.

There was something at once comic and pathetic in the Republican banquet which was served up in Boston on Saturday. Distinguished Republicans from outside the State had been invited, but with remarkable unanimity they all declined to attend. This threw the burden of speechmaking upon Senators Dawes and Hoar, and they improved it to a most wearisome length. We can conceive of no more heartless use of a banquet than to entice several hundred men to it, and then to turn loose upon them two such lugubrious orators as Dawes and Hoar. They both stood up and said at great length the same things that they had been saying with more or less fulness for the past five or ten years. There was not a ray of freshness or a gleam of a new idea in either speech from beginning to end. The quality of Mr. Dawes's speech can be inferred by the following sample from his introductory re-

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marks: "The atmosphere we are breathing here to-day is so surcharged with genuine Republicanism that there can be little need of either tonics or stimulants. The spirit of the olden time is upon us again. The cause is again, as of old, paramount, and the individual subordinate. I congratulate the Republican party of Massachusetts, so largely represented here to day, upon the harmony and earnestness everywhere manifest—sure precursors of success."

Mr. Hoar's speech was in the same line, as the following familiar passage will show: "The Democratic party represents and is controlled by the opinions and purposes as they are to-day of the men who, twenty years ago, thought rebellion, secession, and slavery were right; and the Republican party represents and is controlled by the opinions and purposes as they are to-day of the men who, twenty years ago, thought rebellion, secession, and slavery were wrong." After an hour or more of this kind of oratory, other but brief speeches were made, and then Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge, with the late untoward result in Rhode Island in mind, quoted with depressing effect:

> "I hold it truth with him who sings
> To one clear harp in divers tones,
> That men may rise on stepping-stones
> Of their dead selves to higher things."

This confession that the party was dead was received in silence, and Mr. Lodge went on to explain that its death was merely seeming, that it has suffered disaster chiefly because of the "petty personal dislike which is shown towards candidates." Mr. Lodge's stepping-stone of the party's dead self is not high principle, but loyalty to the candidate, no matter what his character. He is going to help the party to rise to "higher things" by reëlecting Gov. Ames next fall, and by waging unrelenting war upon all Independents and reformers of whatever name or character.

The *Independent*, we are informed, is to contain an editorial note this week identifying "Arthur Richmond," the blackguard contributor of the *North American Review*, with Gail Hamilton, the great "lady Junius" of the Blaineites. It is intimated by a hint in the *Tribune*, that there are two Arthur Richmonds in the field, and, therefore, the *Independent's* discovery will not conflict with the theory that the other "Arthur Richmond," who attacked Mr. Bayard in the *Review*, was Mr. William Henry Hurlbert. If this be true, we must say frankly to all the blackguard writers in the country that they are not treating Mr. Allen Thorndike Rice, the editor, with due consideration. They should not presume too much on his simplicity or his infirmity. The way they are behaving in dumping their rubbish on him, and getting paid for it, reminds us of a story which the late James T. Fields used to tell of a certain storekeeping New England deacon, one of whose friends related, "That he warn't so fore-handed as he used to be, because his eyesight failed him about a year ago, and as soon as they heerd tell on't they began to bring him in the counterfeit money from fur an' near, and unloaded nigh $200 of the stuff onto him before he found it out."

Iron and steel are again in peril, as we learn from the Philadelphia *Times*, which in turn learns the fact from the Bulletin of the American Iron and Steel Association. The trouble is not a new one. It broke out some weeks ago, but was thought to have been suppressed by timely action of the producers. It proceeds entirely from an excessive advance in the price of rails, enabling the foreign producer to run his stuff in, despite the existing duty of $17 per ton, not to mention ocean freights and other charges. American producers are exhorted to hold their appetites in check, and not to charge so much for rails that the foreigner can come in here and crush us. The Bulletin of the Iron and Steel Association "wisely admonishes them that the large volume of importations means an early and unfavorable influence on home prices," although how that effect is to be produced it does not explain. Domestic rails were selling a year or two ago at $27.50 per ton. They are now quoted at $41.50, at which price it appears that they can be imported. The advance of $14 per ton lets in foreign rails. Now, an unfavorable influence on home prices cannot be produced by any amount of importation at $41.50 per ton, and the presumption is that at any lower price they could not be imported. A hint is thrown out by the Bulletin that there are undervaluations at the New York Custom-house, but it is evident that this suggestion is not much relied upon, because in the same breath the American producers are admonished to "recall the suicidal folly they perpetrated only a few years ago, when the iron trade revived, by advancing prices until they emptied all the surplus iron of Europe upon our markets and bankrupted themselves. Fraud in custom-houses can be readily detected and remedied, but the temptation to inordinate profits for producers is most difficult to restrain." So it would appear.

Within the last few years a change has taken place in the attitude of our Department of State towards American citizens residing abroad. It has, of course, from the first, extended protection to our citizens temporarily residing in foreign countries. But the inclination of the Department for many years was to seize upon any small circumstance as indicating the abandonment of nationality. Indeed, until the present Administration, the only exception which had ever been made to the presumption of such abandonment by long residence abroad was in the case of missionaries. In the cases of all others the rule laid down by Mr. Webster has always been applied. That rule was: "A person found residing in a foreign country is presumed to be there *animo manendi*, or with the purpose of remaining; and to relieve himself of the character which this presumption fixes upon him, he must show that his residence was only temporary, and accompanied all the while with a fixed and definite intention of returning. If in that country he engages in trade and business, he is considered by the law of nations as a merchant of that country." The growth of our commerce has been so great since Webster's day that it is not at all uncommon for a large central firm, situated in New York, for example, to have in various foreign countries "branch houses" presided over by trusted agents, American-born citizens, who must needs live continuously abroad. It is very much to Mr. Bayard's credit that he has not scrupled to place these in the same class with the missionaries. About a year ago he held that such agents were subject to the laws of the country in which the firm is domiciled, and to that country their domiciliary duties belong. He has had occasion lately to emphasize this, and to add that such agents are not only American citizens, entitled to our protection and subject to our laws, but are exempt from all burdens which are imposed by the laws of the country in which they reside upon its citizens, such as poll taxes, taxes on personalty, militia duty, and the like.

It is becoming evident that the movement for church union finds it dangerous to pass from the region of vague sentiment to that of practical proposals. The resolutions of the Presbytery of New York, in the form of an overture to the General Assembly, treat the Episcopal olive-branch as if it were the traditional chip on the shoulder. Under the guise of hoisting a reciprocal flag of truce, they really throw down the gauntlet for new conflicts, with a curious mixture of benevolence and belligerence, assuring the Episcopal Church that its proposed bases of union will do very well for Episcopalians, but will never answer for Presbyterians. In fact, it would seem that the most probable outcome of the modern talk about the cordial feeling between the denominations and the vanishing away of the old distinctions, as soon as approach is made to any positive action, will be a revival of theological and sectarian controversy. This has certainly been the result in the case of the Presbyterian churches, North and South. As soon as men began to speak above a whisper about the possibility of the two uniting, the old leaders flew to their guns again. The *Independent*, the great champion of organic church union, has undoubted reason for its sorrowful conclusion that little if anything can be done in this generation. But why should anything be done? Is any human being harmed by the want of church union?

The notorious Mrs. Howe, the Boston banker, who swindled so many women nine years ago by offering them 90 per cent. per annum on their deposits, has been able to set up her bank again in the same place, and has met with such success that she has actually "skipped" with $50,000. When she was in business on the former occasion, her operations raised the question whether women were or were not more gullible than men, and a controversy of considerable bitterness broke out between the sexes, in which, if we remember rightly, Gail Hamilton played the part of a giantess and struck heavy blows for woman. We do not believe the discussion had any decided result one way or the other. The illustrations of gullibility which each side was able to produce were very impressive, but, as well as we remember, the balance between them was almost, if not quite, even. Mrs. Howe's ability to open the bank again and do some business on the old principles among her own sex, tells with

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some force in favor of the theory that women fall victims to imposture more readily than men. It must be admitted, however, that since the career of the firm of Grant & Ward has been exposed, the men have had but little to say in favor of their superior business perspicacity. The promises made by Ward were as wild as Mrs. Howe ever made to her depositors, and it was not poor spinsters they took in, but men familiar with the operations of business and the ordinary chances of profit.

The condition in which Messrs. George Riddle and Edgar Fawcett have left the once proud city of Boston, is really pitiable. Mr. Fawcett wrote for Mr. Riddle a play which he confidently declared to be his own masterpiece. Mr. Riddle appeared in it. The public declined to attend save in very sparse numbers, and the critics of the newspapers "jumped upon" both play and actor without mercy. Mr. Fawcett, we believe, left town instantly; Mr. Riddle, shortly after the composition of a farewell address to the city, in which he tells its inhabitants in the frankest manner just what he thinks of them. He says he has no grievance, and he asks neither sympathy nor congratulation, regarding the latter as "hollow and insincere." He wishes it to be understood that he is as indifferent to Boston as Boston is to him, and that no matter what other cities may hereafter say of him as an actor, "Boston will never have an opportunity again of sitting in judgment on me, nor of jumping on me with both feet —and the Boston foot is notoriously large." This neat rap at the physical aspect of the abstract Bostonian appears to have made Mr. Riddle very happy, for he concludes: "I am in buoyant spirits, not at all discouraged, and very hopeful of being able to exist without the suffrages of Boston, whose damnation is purely local." Announcement is not yet made of the locality in which Messrs. Fawcett and Riddle will next appear, and every city in the land will be more or less nervous until it is.

President Hyde of Bowdoin College, in Maine, who is the youngest college president in America, and was a good base-ball player when he was a student himself a few years ago, has been talking very sensibly on the general subject of college athletics. "Anybody who has had experience with a lot of vigorous young fellows," he says, "knows that they must have some way to dispose of their superfluous energy," and he believes that, if they do not have sports, they will expend it on doors and windows. The proof of this is found in the fact that the new gymnasium at Bowdoin has effected a great saving in the College's expenses for repairs, the general average of such expenses having never before been so low as it was last term. Part of the credit for this, it should be noted, Dr. Hyde gives to the jury system introduced by him a year and a half ago, under which, in case any damage is done by bonfires or smash-ups, the jurors investigate, ascertain who is responsible, and assess the persons who did the mischief. Each student is obliged to work in the gymnasium half-an-hour a day four days in the week, the gymnasium work being carefully graded according to the strength and ability of the men; and the system is already working a marked improvement in the College physique. Dr. Hyde approves of base-ball and boating as healthful and manly sports, but questions the advantage of intercollegiate base-ball leagues, on account of their tendency to foster gambling and lower the student to the level of the professional player. For this reason the Bowdoin Faculty encourage games between the several classes in preference to participation in the Maine intercollegiate base-ball league, although they do not prohibit the students from entering the league.

The extraordinary speech which Mr. Joseph Chamberlain made on Thursday last in Scotland seems to indicate either that he has completely got rid of all the political sagacity he ever had, or has finally determined to cut loose from the Liberal party altogether, and enroll himself among the Tories for good and all. Ever since Burke's famous protest against the "indictment of a whole people," the foundation-stone of the Liberal creed has been the assumption that all large bodies or communities are on the whole, if not always wise, at least well-meaning, and desire to be peaceable, and orderly, and respectable. This may not always be true—indeed, it is sometimes far from true; but Liberal politicians in every country in the world feel bound at least to profess to believe it as one of the cardinal articles in the democratic creed. When a country is much ravaged by crime or disorder of a political nature, the Liberal theory is expressed in the words of Sully, that men are never turbulent except through "impatience of suffering," or, in other words, that protracted resistance to or defiance of law is the fault of the Government. It is only high Tories, or German Junkers, or French Legitimists who maintain that a whole community or nation is a pack of thieves or cut-throats, who do wickedness because their nature is corrupt and their desires wholly evil, and that the only way of reducing them to order is by the free use of the dungeon and the scaffold.

Mr. Chamberlain seems to have lost all hold of this central idea of Liberalism. His denunciations of the Irish are worthy of Mr. Chaplin, or the Hon. James Lowther, or any old Tory squire. They are all thieves and assassins together, and they will probably try to assassinate him for denouncing him, but, like a fine old English gentleman that he is, they cannot intimidate him. They may kill him if they please, but they are not going to prevent him and his friends "handing down unimpaired to their children the mighty empire which their forefathers bequeathed to them." When one reads this fustian one can hardly help wondering at the rapidity of his rise from the position of an active and dexterous local politician to that of a leading British statesman. It is, however, doubtless accounted for by his extraordinary skill as an organizer, and his undoubted ability as an executive officer. It is now plain enough, however, that his head was not strong enough for his elevation. Since his revolt against Gladstone, to whose recognition of him he owed everything, the number of those who believed in his sincerity or disinterestedness has been rapidly diminishing, and his increasing fury against the Irish is doubtless due to disappointment over the now admitted failure of the Unionist secession. It has not loosened Gladstone's hold on the bulk of the Liberal party, and the old man's health continues to be provokingly good.

The letter of Parnell about the Phœnix Park murders, of which the London *Times* has printed what purports to be a facsimile, would, of course, be damaging to the last degree if authenticated. But the presumptions are all against its authenticity. The *Times* has been publishing a series of long articles entitled "Parnellism and Crime," trying to show the connection or the sympathy of the leading members of the Land League and National League with the various crimes and outrages committed or proposed by Irish Nationalists during the past seven years, both in Ireland, England, and America. The articles were got up, in the well-known journalistic way, by putting together all sorts of damaging and suspicious facts, pressing all possible presumptions into support of the charge, ignoring everything that makes against it, and giving to all careless or ambiguous phrases the worst possible meaning. The articles have, however, owing to their savage animus, fallen very flat. Neither the Liberals nor the Parnellites have taken the least notice of them. The silence of the Parnellites has been apparently very exasperating to the editor, for he keeps calling their attention to them, and challenging them to take legal proceedings against him. It was in this extremity that he announced that he had something stunning in reserve, which he would produce on some future day. This something appears to be the letter in question.

The principal internal evidence against the authenticity of the letter is that it covers the case far too completely. It is just such a letter as the *Times* would get Parnell to write if he agreed to help it to damage him seriously. In this it closely resembles the campaign stories and letters that "workers" get out in this country a day or two before election. He is a very close-mouthed and cautious man, and yet, merely to satisfy a dissatisfied murderer, he writes a most explicit letter, in plain English, without suppressing a single name or resorting to any sign or cipher, and then signs it, like a man, with his own name in full on another page, so that his correspondent, the *Times* suggests, might tear it off if he chose; but also, it might be added, if he did not so choose, that he might sell it to the Tory press. If his signature be genuine, its appearance on the other page looks as if it was obtained as an autograph. The *Times* has fortified the letter in a very amusing way by declaring in advance that Parnell's denial will be of no use in demolishing it. It will probably turn out to be a clumsy forgery like the Morey letter, and its appearance is made doubly suspicious by the fact that it appeared on the very day on which a division was expected on the second reading of the Coercion Bill.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, April 13, to TUESDAY, April 19, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND has appointed William J. Allen of Springfield, Ill., to be United States District Judge for the Southern District of that State; Col. Wesley Merritt of the Fifth Cavalry, now Superintendent at West Point, to be a brigadier-general; and Sigourney Butler of Boston to be Second Comptroller of the Treasury, in place of Judge Maynard, promoted to the Assistant Secretaryship of the Treasury.

On April 16 the President appointed Alexander R. Lawton of Georgia to be United States Minister to Austria. Mr. Lawton was appointed United States Minister to Russia in 1885, but his name was withdrawn on account of a discussion of his political disabilities, which were removed by the last Congress. Newton W. McConnell of Tennessee has been appointed Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Montana, and George S. Peters of Ohio United States District Attorney for Utah.

Secretary Whitney has awarded to the Bethlehem Iron Works Company of Pennsylvania the contracts for furnishing steel-gun forgings and steel-armor plates for new war ships at a total cost of $4,512,938.29.

Gen. Greely, the new head of the Government Weather Bureau, has had prepared, from the records of the last fifteen years, a table of mean temperature, rainfall, etc., on every day of the year. The figures of any current date, by comparison with the mean figures of the last fifteen years on a corresponding date, show how far the temperature, rainfall, etc., of the current date exceed or fall below the normal line; and the mean records of a part of any season, compared with the mean records of the whole of the corresponding season for fifteen years, furnish a basis on which it is reasonably safe to predict the general character of the remaining part. Gen. Greely hopes thus to send to the produce exchanges periodical reports that will be of the highest service in changing their transactions from a purely speculative basis to one of reasonable assurance.

For the first quarter of this year the revenues of the Post-office Department foot up not far from $12,500,000, which is an increase of 9 per cent. over the revenues of the corresponding quarter of last year, and is the largest quarter's business ever done by the Department.

At a reception to ex-Speaker Carlisle at Covington, Ky., April 13, he expressed the opinion that "there has never been a time since 1876 when the majority of the people were not in favor of the principles of the Democratic party"; and he said: "This country is full of vagaries on the powers of Government. Some want it to become a great eleemosynary institution for the care of everybody; some want it to purchase the railroads and telegraph lines; some want it to interfere with the people's private business; some want it to loan money to indigent people. It is impossible to enumerate the schemes to rob the taxpayers for the benefit of somebody else. We must overcome the Socialistic theories abroad in the land. We must stand everywhere for the protection of both capital and labor. We must stand everywhere for the rights of men to do business with their own money in their own way. If the Democratic party does not do this, it might as well cease to exist."

After the defeat of the Prohibition amendment in Michigan, fifty Republican members of the Legislature, in caucus, decided to prepare a bill for high license and local option. Drug stores wishing to sell liquors are to pay the same tax as saloons. The limit of the license was fixed for cities of 10,000 inhabitants and over, $700; for cities under 10,000, $500; for incorporated villages, $100; for townships, $300. A High-License Bill has been introduced in the Massachusetts Legislature, which fixes the price of a first-class license at $1,000, second and third class at $750, fourth class at $500, and fifth class at $150.

Three proposed amendments to the Constitution of California failed of adoption at the polls on April 12. The first provided that the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court should be elected by the judges instead of by the people; the second, that the salaries of certain Superior Court judges should be increased, as well as the salary of the Supreme Court judges from $6,000 to $7,500; and the third, that cities of more than 10,000 population should make their own charters.

Investigation of the recent effort to kill a member of the Illinois Legislature, named Bailey, of which the friends of the condemned Anarchists in Chicago are suspected, has led to the suspicion of an oath-bound organization of Socialists to wreak vengeance (in case hope of saving the condemned Anarchists is lost) on all who have aided in their prosecution.

The Ohio State Centennial Commission, of which Gov. Foraker is Chairman, is making preparations for the exposition to be held at Columbus next year in commemoration of the first settlement of the Northwest Territory.

A very destructive cyclone swept through Belmont County, O., April 14. At St. Clairsville nearly every house was damaged. The churches, banks, court-house, newspaper offices, and hotels were demolished or so badly shattered as to be useless, and many people were hurt. At Martin's Ferry 80 to 100 houses were swept away, and almost 100 families made homeless. Twenty-five people were more or less seriously wounded.

On April 13 Columbia College celebrated its centennial anniversary. There were present many distinguished visitors from other institutions of learning, and honorary degrees were conferred on the following: Degree of Doctor of Letters—Andrew Dickinson White, Merrill Edwards Gates, Francis Andrew March, Richard Salter Storrs, John De Witt, Horace Howard Furness, James Albert Harrison, William Milligan Sloane, Charles Waldstein, William Copley Winslow, Henry Barnard, George William Curtis, Alice Elvira Freeman, President of Wellesley College; George Lansing Taylor, Martin Brewer Anderson, James Hammond Trumbull, Nathaniel Henry Rhodes Dawson, Isaac Hollister Hall, Moses Coit Tyler, George Bancroft, Francis James Child, William Dwight Whitney, Amelia Blandford Edwards, Secretary Egyptian Exploration Fund. Degree of Doctor of Laws—Abram Stevens Hewitt, Julius Hawley Seelye, Benjamin Apthorp Gould, James Burrill Angell, John Call Dalton, Charles Andrews, John Barbee Minor, Simon Newcomb, Charles A. Rapallo, Robert Earl, Maria Mitchell, Director of Observatory, Vassar College; John Chandler Bancroft Davis, Frederic René Coudert, Charles Augustus Young, William Watson Goodwin, Daniel Coit Gilman, Francis Amasa Walker, Morrison Remick Waite, William Crawford Ruger, John Tyndall, Lewis Morris Rutherfurd, Eugene Waldemar Hilgard, Émile Lavasseur, Hermann Ludwig von Helmholtz, John William Dawson, Daniel Manning, Edward Singleton Holden, Moritz Steinschneider. Degree of Doctor of Divinity—Frederick Dan Huntington, George Williamson Smith, Eugene Augustus Hoffman, Robert Brinckerhoff Fairbairn, Albert Zabriskie Gray, Henry Augustus Coit, Phillips Brooks, John Richard McGrath. Frederic R. Coudert of this city, an alumnus of the College, delivered the oration.

Dr. C. W. Bennett of Evanston, Ill., acting for a donor whose name has not been made public, has purchased the Ranke library at Berlin for the Syracuse (N. Y.) University, Mr. V. H. R. Carey of this city, a post-graduate student of Harvard, has given $25,000 to aid in building the swimming bath for the gymnasium. The bath will be 100 feet by 60, and will contain a thousand lockers and a racquet court. An anonymous gift of $25,000 has been made to the Law Department of Yale College, to be used for the furtherance of the study of contracts and commercial law. The fund is to be known as the Phelps Fund, in honor of Prof. Phelps, now United States Minister to England, who was one of the Faculty of the Law Department.

A dinner was given in this city April 14 in behalf of the American School at Athens, to which many distinguished scholars sat down. Mr. George William Curtis presided and delivered the opening address, and speeches were made by Mr. James Russell Lowell and Dr. Waldstein.

Walt Whitman read his lecture in the Madison Square Theatre on "Abraham Lincoln" April 14, which was the twenty-second anniversary of Lincoln's assassination. In the box at the left of the stage sat Mr. James Russell Lowell and Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, and on the right Mr. E. C. Stedman.

The anniversary of Jefferson's birth, April 13, was celebrated by the alumni of the University of Virginia who live in New Orleans. The orator was William M. Burwell, whose father was private secretary to President Jefferson. Though advanced in years, he is an active journalist, and at the last election was the Republican candidate for Congress in the First City District.

The remains of Lincoln were privately taken from their hiding place April 14, and interred in the north vault of the Lincoln monument in Oak Ridge Cemetery, Springfield, Ill. The Lincoln Guard of Honor had kept them concealed since the effort to steal them in 1876. The features were easily recognizable.

Mrs. M. M. Dickey, one of the six surviving pensioners of the Revolutionary war, died on April 12, at Towanda, Pa., aged ninety-six. Her husband died at the age of ninety-six in 1844. James S. Delano, an employee of the Treasury Department at Washington since 1862 until recently, died April 14. He began as a clerk, and rose through the different grades until he became Deputy Second Comptroller. The Rev. Francis W. Tustin, Professor of Greek in Bucknell University, Pennsylvania, died on the same day. The Right Rev. Monsignor William Quinn, Vicar-General of the Archdiocese of New York, died in Paris on April 15. In 1875 he was made Vicar-General and rector of the Mott Street Cathedral, and the labor of building the new Cathedral fell almost entirely on his shoulders, because of the illness of Cardinal McCloskey. In 1879 the Pope made him one of his domestic prelates, conferring upon him the rank of Monsignor. Other deaths are those of John L. Hayes, Secretary of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, April 18; Chief-Justice David K. Cartter of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, April 16; ex-Congressman A. J. Weaver of Nebraska, and Alexander Mitchell, President of the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul Railroad Company, April 19.

FOREIGN.

Mr. Chamberlain made a speech at Ayr, April 14, which greatly excited all parties, and so inflamed the Irish against him that he received many threatening letters. In the course of his speech he said: "The opponents of the Crimes Bill have made an outcry against the repression of liberty. Liberty to do what? To commit theft, to ruin industrious men, to outrage women?" When he was hissed he continued: "This is the spirit of the parties in the Irish Convention in Chicago. That Convention, besides being attended by delegates honestly in sympathy with Ireland, had apostles of outrage and murder, who have paid the outrage-mongers of England. Mr. Redmond, the delegate of the Irish Parliamentary party, explicitly declared that it was the aim of that party to effect the entire separation of Ireland from England, and that their policy was to make the government of Ireland by England impossible." In the House of Commons Mr. Redmond made a personal explanation with reference to his speech at the Chicago Conven-

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tion, disclaiming the interpretation of it made by Mr. Chamberlain.

The popular protest against the Coercion Bill in all parts of the United Kingdom has been emphatically expressed. In John Bright's own division in Birmingham, every representative elected to the Two Thousand (the Liberal Association) except Mr. Chamberlain himself, is a pronounced Gladstonian. A resolution denouncing coercion and expressing unabated confidence in Mr. Gladstone was carried. The *Daily News* of April 15 contained eleven advertisement columns of solid signatures, numbering altogether 3,200, of Nonconformist preachers in England and Wales, protesting against coercion, and expressing the belief that "force can be no remedy for political discontent." Earl Spencer, formerly Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, on arriving at Truro April 15, was greeted by a concourse of 20,000 persons, and was presented with an address of welcome. In his reply he condemned the Government's Irish policy and advocated home rule. Sir George Otto Trevelyan, one of the Unionist leaders, and formerly Chief Secretary for Ireland, on April 14 published a letter on the Coercion Bill tantamount to a manifesto against it. He said that the bill was chiefly aimed at politicians and editors opposed to the Government's policy, and added: "The full weight of this terrible but one-sided measure is intended to fall, and will fall, upon the politicians of one party alone. The measure will be administered by those who, beyond all question, are actuated by the strongest Orange sympathies, and it is calculated to exasperate the people without serving any useful purpose." This letter is regarded as the severest blow yet dealt to the Unionist party.

At Limerick on April 17th, 60,000 persons joined in a demonstration against the Coercion Bill, the Mayor presiding.

There was an extraordinary scene in the House of Commons on April 15. Mr. Saunderson, Conservative, accused the Irish members (clearly alluding to Mr. Healy in particular) of associating with murderers. When the Speaker refused to rule the remark out of order, Mr. Healy said: "If the honorable, gallant gentleman refers to me, I have no hesitation in telling him across the floor of the House that he is a liar," for which he was suspended and he left the House amid the cheers of the Irish members. Mr. Saunderson continuing, Mr. Sexton next rose: "I say you are a wilful and cowardly liar. If I meet you outside the door of this House I will cram this statement down your throat and thrash you within an inch of your life." It was clear that unless Mr. Saunderson withdrew his expression, every Parnellite member present would give him the lie direct, and all would be suspended in succession. He withdrew his remark and order was restored. Mr. Healy was, therefore, suspended for contradicting a remark which was subsequently withdrawn by the Speaker's order.

On the second reading of the Coercion Bill, April 18, Mr. Gladstone, in his speech, which was delivered with every sign of vigor, protested eloquently against the scoffs at the American contributions to the relief of the famine-stricken Irish people, contributions to the rent of their landlords, and the like, as scoffs at one of the glories of the United States. He described the bill as directed not against crime but combination. He concluded with these words: "The bill, sir, in my view, is a cup of poison. I will not commend it to the lips of Ireland. It must be offered to them by another hand than mine. To me it will be honor and happiness enough should I be permitted the smallest share in dashing it to the ground." Mr. Balfour's speech was important for his statement that the Government will stand or fall by its Land Bill. The bill then passed its second reading.

The London *Times* on April 18, as a proof of its assertion, at the conclusion of its series of articles on "Parnellism and Crime," that it had documentary evidence of Parnell's connection with crime in Ireland, printed a facsimile of a letter which it said was written by Parnell to Egan to pacify his subordinates when Parnell publicly denounced the Phœnix Park murders. The letter is in a handwriting which does not resemble Parnell's, but the signature, the *Times* asserted, is his. The letter, which is dated simply "15, 5, 82," without an address, is as follows:

"DEAR SIR: I am not surprised at your friend's anger, but he and you should know that to denounce the murders was the only course open to us. To do that promptly was plainly our best policy. But you can tell him and all others concerned that though I regret the accident of Lord F. Cavendish's death, I cannot refuse to admit that Burke got no more than his deserts. You are at liberty to show him this, and others whom you can trust also, but let not my address be known. He can write to the House of Commons."

The letter was the topic of universal conversation. Irishmen emphatically repudiated it, and not one believed it genuine. At one o'clock that night, in the House of Commons, Mr. Parnell described it as "a villanous, bare faced forgery" to influence the division. "I never heard of the letter," he said. "I never directed such a letter to be written. I never saw such a letter before I saw it in the *Times* this morning. The subject-matter is preposterous; and the phraseology, absurd as it could possibly be in every particular, bears evidence of its want of genuineness." Concerning the Phœnix Park murders, he said: "It is no exaggeration to say that if I had been in the park that day, I would gladly have stood between Lord Frederick Cavendish and the daggers of his assassins [cheers and cries of "Burke"]; for the matter of that, between their daggers and Burke. Now, sir, I leave this subject. I have suffered more than any other man from that terrible deed in Phœnix Park. The Irish nation has suffered more than any other nation. I have never had any dealings with Alexander Sullivan, or any one else, in respect to the doings or proceedings of any secret society." This was during the debate on the second reading of the Coercion Bill. In conclusion, taking up his hat, he said, in a strong voice: "I trust in God this nation and this House may be saved from the degradation, mistake, and peril of passing this bill."

Messrs. Parnell and Davitt, and other prominent Irishmen, are making an effort to help the Irish in an industrial way by promoting the organization of an Irish woollen manufacturing and exporting company with a capital of $500,000. Mr. Davitt, while in the United States, received many promises of assistance from importers of woollens

The Rev. Dr. Parker of London will deliver a eulogy on Henry Ward Beecher in Brooklyn on June 24. After that he will preach a number of times in Brooklyn, and will subsequently deliver several lectures in the United States.

The volume of European emigration to America is again rapidly increasing. The railways are running special trains to Queenstown to accommodate emigrants. The emigration from Hamburg to the United States in March amounted to 4,059 men and 1,904 women, whence the total since the new year has been 7,820 men and 3,572 women.

The German Government has issued a decree that all public placards posted in Alsace-Lorraine shall be printed in the German language, but French translations will be permitted. Every Mayor or other official in the provinces suspected of French sympathies has been dismissed. On April 13 the Berlin *Post* published a spirited article on the relations between Germany and France. Referring to the French cavalry evolutions at Lunéville, it said: "These and similar military preparations along the frontier bear the character of provocations, and appear to proceed entirely from a wish to annoy and alarm Germany." *Le Paris* in reply spoke of the German policy as "lying, cynical, and brutal."

Gen. Brialmont, aide-de-camp of the King of the Belgians, recently said: "War is certainly inevitable. But, from what I can gather from all sources, it will not break out so long as the aged Emperor of Germany is alive. He is strongly imbued with religious and humane sentiments, which cause him to shrink from shedding more blood. There is no effort he will not make compatible with the dignity of his empire to avoid an outbreak of hostilities." Gen. Brialmont's opinion is that a Franco-German war would mean the invasion of Belgium, and invasion would mean annexation.

The Czar has rejected the French proposals for an alliance between France and Russia. The French Ambassador, M. de Laboulaye, thereupon offered to resign.

A Frenchman named Nillairand on April 18 stabbed ex-Marshal Bazaine with a poniard at Madrid, exclaiming, "*J'ai vengé ma patrie.*" He was arrested, and is thought to be insane. The wound is reported to be slight.

At the opening of the Italian Parliament, Prime Minister Depretis said that Italy would follow a policy of peace, but, since every other Government was increasing its armament, the Cabinet would ask the Chambers for credits to strengthen the kingdom's defences.

It has been reported from Madrid that leading statesmen and literary men will join influential politicians of Central and South America in advocating closer commercial and political relations between the Spanish countries on both sides of the Atlantic. Their hope is to form a commercial zollverein and political alliance to combat the growing influence of the Anglo-Saxon race, especially in Central America, Mexico, and the West Indies, and to prevent the Panama Canal's falling into the hands of the United States.

The Pope has decided that the Church shall not oppose the Knights of Labor in America. This decision will stand so long as the present method pursued in furthering their aims prevails. The document of Cardinal Gibbons has been endorsed. In Canada, where a mandament had been issued against the Knights, the members of the Order will receive absolution on promise of obedience to future decisions of the Holy See.

Several Arab tribes have detached themselves from the Mahdi's authority and proclaimed one of their Sheikhs Sultan, with a residence at Kassala. They have an organized army of 8,000 men, and the new Sultan has appointed five governors of provinces.

A Somali trader from the Uganda country has brought news that Emin Bey is established north of the Albert Nyanza, and has two small steamers plying on the White Nile. The King of Uganda, a youth of eighteen who has 1,000 wives, refused him permission to pass through his territory towards Zanzibar. It is reported that the messengers sent by Stanley from Zanzibar to Emin Bey were detained by a chief on the way.

The Dominion Parliament opened April 14. The Governor-General in his speech said that the negotiations between Great Britain and the United States on the fisheries question were still in progress, and would, he hoped, result in an arrangement honorable and satisfactory to both nations; meanwhile, provision had been made for the protection of the Canadian inshore fisheries. On April 15 the Hon. Edward Blake said the Government had not treated the Americans as it becomes one people to treat the citizens of another country. He asked what had been done, and what assurance the Government had of a satisfactory settlement. In reply Sir John McDonald declared that the question was such a delicate one to handle in an incomplete stage of proceeding that he could not now give an answer. The Canadian fisheries fleet this season will include, besides the flagship *Arcadia*, two steamships, seven schooners, and the confiscated *Highland Light*, which has been christened *Vigilant*. These vessels carry thirty officers, and sixteen guns, and 130 men.

The Joint Committee of the Mexican Congress has reported in favor of the repeal of that amendment to the Constitution which forbids the immediate reelection of the President,

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THE IMPORTANCE OF THE FINISH.

In a year from this time, the record of the Administration on which it must go to the country will be finally made up. There are already in that record, in the matter of appointments and dismissals, a great many things which the best friends of the President cannot reconcile with his promises and professions, made before election, except by making allowances for the difficulties he has had to encounter from his own party. That is to say, they have had to presume that he tried to do better and meant to do better than he has done, but encountered resistance too great for any one man to overcome. But we feel bound to say that this is one of the excuses, like those that one makes for the shortcomings of a young man, which are only good as long as there remains time for improvement —that is, there are a good many defences and apologies which one can produce, with more or less effectiveness, for an Administration during its first and second years, which begin to wear out in the third, and become mere rags and tatters in the fourth. Unfortunately, when the time comes round to vote, it is the doings of the third and fourth years which people have most distinctly in their minds in forming their judgments.

For these reasons, we who believe firmly in the great superiority of President Cleveland to any of his recent predecessors, in his manner of using the patronage of the Government, cannot conceal from ourselves, nevertheless, that it is in the highest degree dangerous to enter on the last year of his Administration without greatly checking the political activity of some of his subordinates; and not only this, but without giving the public a good many conspicuous examples, between now and June, 1888, of the kind of Administration he had in mind when he wrote his celebrated letter to Mr. George William Curtis and others. A good many gentlemen are, in fact, now preparing for his renomination in ways which will make it extremely difficult for civil-service reformers to go to the polls for him with the alacrity they displayed in 1884. Numerous dismissals have been made or are being made which are just as bad, from every point of view, moral, political, and administrative, as any that occurred under Grant or Garfield, or would have occurred under Blaine. This downward course must be arrested if we are to have 1884 over again. There is still time, but it will soon be too late to make an effective change. No man who has ever sat in the Presidential chair since Jackson's day can less well afford to go before the American people for reëlection with such a record as President Cleveland is now allowing some of his official followers to make up for him. Nobody could afford it who had accomplished even half as much good as he has done.

We cannot now recall any other Administration than his since the war to which such an appeal as this could be effectively made. He has given many illustrations during the past three years of the utility of calling his attention to departures made by his followers from his own programme. What we wish now to emphasize is, that the time during which such corrections and emendations can be made to produce their proper effect on public opinion, is very brief, and must be improved.

THE DRINK BILL, FORMERLY AND NOW.

Mr. W. F. Switzler, Chief of the Bureau of Statistics at Washington, has done a good and timely piece of work by compiling and presenting in his last quarterly report some interesting and valuable figures as to the consumption and cost of liquor in times past and now. The public attention has been so fixed upon the drink evil during the past winter by the controversies over liquor-legislation in many States, that a careful investigation of the facts is peculiarly welcome.

The records of the Internal Revenue Bureau and of the customs service furnish the figures as to the quantity of distilled spirits, wines, and malt liquors produced in this country, exported from it, and imported from abroad, so that it is possible to present a reasonably accurate statement as to the amount of each sort consumed in recent years, while less accurate data as to the past are found in the census reports for 1840, 1850, and 1860. The annual consumption in gallons for each of the decennial years and for 1886 is given in this table:

	Distilled spirits.	Wines.	Malt liquors.
1840	43,060,884	4,873,096	23,310,843
1850	51,833,473	6,315,871	36,563,009
1860	89,968,651	11,059,141	101,346,699
1870	79,895,708	12,225,067	204,756,156
1880	63,526,694	28,329,541	414,220,165
1886	72,261,614	22,067,220	642,967,720

The real significance of this table, however, only appears when it is supplemented by one which gives the total consumption per capita of population for the various years, as it is this which indicates the increase or diminution of the drinking habit. Here is such a table:

	Distilled spirits.	Wines.	Malt liquors.
1840	2.52	0.29	1.36
1850	2.23	0.27	1.58
1860	2.86	0.35	3.22
1870	2.07	0.32	5.30
1880	1.26	0.56	8.26
1886	1.24	0.38	11.18

Dismissing as of doubtful value the census figures for 1840, 1850, and 1860, the reports beginning with 1870 show certain tendencies very clearly. Eliminating from the account the divergences caused by the ups and downs which the distilling business experiences, like every other industry and more than many others, and which often cause great differences in the amounts withdrawn for consumption in successive years, it is obvious that there is a steady drift toward a diminution of the amount of "hard liquor" consumed in the country. There has not been a year during the decade beginning with 1876 in which the consumption of distilled spirits per capita was as great as it was in each of the half dozen years beginning with 1870; and the conclusion is unavoidable that Americans as a race drink decidedly less whiskey now than they used to do, the average for the last ten years being but 1.29 gallon, against 1.54 for the previous six. It will surprise many people to find that the use of wine appears also to be decreasing of late, the average having crept up pretty steadily until it exceeded half a gallon per capita in 1880, and then receded to but little over a third of a gallon in the last three years. The consumption of malt liquors, on the other hand, has increased almost thirty-fold in absolute quantity, and nearly ten-fold relatively to population, since 1840, and this increase has been most marked during the past decade, in which the amount per capita has increased nearly two-thirds.

Figures from the 'Statistical Abstract for the United Kingdom' show a similar decrease in the consumption of spirits and of wine in Great Britain of late years, and an arrest, at least, of the beer-drinking habit:

	Distilled spirits.	Wine.	Beer.
1871	1.12		
1880	1.04		
1881	1.00	.43	33.90
1882	1.07	.41	33.65
1883	1.03	.40	33.13
1884	1.05	.39	33.72
1885	1.01	.37	32.79

There would seem from these figures to be no ground for doubt that the consumption of the more intoxicating liquors is decreasing in both England and America. Any candid person who has reached middle life will confess that drunkenness appears to him less common, as it certainly is less respectable, than when he was young, and it is satisfactory to find this impression justified by the most accurate figures which are available. Few people are so fanatical that they will not admit that whiskey is worse than beer, and that a nation is better off when it is reducing the quantity of "hard liquor" it drinks, even if it increases at the same time its indulgence in the lighter alcoholic beverages. It is an interesting fact, by the way, that the consumption of coffee increases with the falling off in whiskey, the average in this country having risen in the past five years from 8.2 pounds per capita to 9.11 pounds.

The report presents a valuable contribution from Mr. F. N. Barrett, editor of the *American Grocer*, published in this city, as to the cost of alcoholic beverages to consumers in the United States. The wildest guesses on this subject are constantly put forth in temperance addresses, and Mr. Switzler has done well to seek an estimate from an intelligent source. We can only summarize briefly Mr. Barrett's methods. He gives good reasons for the belief that 10 per cent. of the spirits distilled is used in the manufacturing and mechanic arts, but he regards this as fully made up for by the water added by the retailer. He therefore accepts 75,000,000 gallons, the average for the past five years, as the proper total, which, at 60 drinks per gallon, and at an average of 7½ cents per drink, makes $337,500,000 for whiskey; beer is put at an average of 609,705,367 gallons, which at 50 cents to the consumer makes $304,852,683; imported wines, 4,100,664 gallons, at $4, $16,402,656; domestic wines, 17,391,343 gallons, at $2, $34,782,686—a grand total of $693,538,025, or, adding a reasonable allowance for illicit whiskey and home-made wines, a round sum of $700,000,000 a year paid by the consumers (the cost to the retailers, it should be explained, being placed at only $300,000,000, which allows a profit of 133 1-3 per cent. paid by the consumers). Mr. Barrett's computation is so well fortified that it would command acceptance of itself, but the value of his $700,000,000 estimate is, of course, enhanced by the fact that so high a

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statistical authority as Mr. Edward Atkinson has reached the same conclusion by an independent investigation.

Mr. Barrett estimates the number of people who consume this liquor at 14,925,417, or a trifle above one-quarter of the whole number, and presents the following table of per capita consumption and cost:

Year.	Spirits.		Beer.		Wine.		Cost yearly to consumers.
	Total population.	Drinking population.	Total population.	Drinking population.	Total population.	Drinking population.	
	Gals.	Gals.	Gals.	Gals.	Gals.	Gals.	
1882.....	1.3	5.4	9.8	39.1	.48	1.9	$47 65
1883.....	1.4	5 7	10.2	39.9	.47	1.8	49 20
1884.....	1.4	5 7	10.6	41.6	.36	1.4	49 25
1885.....	1.2	4.8	10 4	40.9	.38	1.5	45 05
1886.....	1.2	4.8	10.9	43.0	.37	1.4	45 90
Average.	1.3	5.3	10.4	40.9	.41	1.6	$47 41

What relation does the expenditure of $700,000,000 for alcoholic beverages bear to the nation's expenditure for food, clothing, and shelter? Mr. Barrett discusses this question, and, estimating that $150 to $200 a year represents the per capita cost of maintenance throughout the country, makes the total for absolute living expenses from $8,790,000,000 to $11,720,000,000. This gives a ratio of $1 spent by the American people for liquor to every $12.55 to $16.74 spent for the support of life.

We regret that Mr. Barrett did not extend his estimate to cover a longer period of years, though we know of no reason to doubt that such an extension would merely have confirmed the conclusion justified by the figures from 1882 to 1886, viz., that the drink bill of the United States relatively to population is decreasing. A statement copied in the report from an English publication proves that this is the case in the United Kingdom, the average cost of liquors per capita (of the whole population, not merely the consumers) being as follows for a series of years:

1870	$18 51	1877	$20 64
1871	19 24	1878	20 46
1872	20 12	1879	18 25
1873	21 23	1880	17 25
1874	21 21	1881	17 58
1875	21 23	1882	17 52
1876	21 66		

All of these figures lead up to the same conclusion, that the consumption of liquor—certainly of the more fiery sorts—is decreasing; that the drink bill of great nations, like the United States and England, enormous as it is, has at least ceased to grow, and apparently has begun to diminish; in short, that civilization has begun to gain the upper hand in the warfare with intemperance.

GETTING THEIR EYES OPEN.

THERE are multiplying signs that the workingmen, who were at first blinded by the "organized labor" movement, are at last getting their eyes open, and beginning to see how badly they have been fooled by their leaders. The unbroken succession of failures in the great strikes started by the Knights of Labor, beginning with last spring, appears to have set the workingmen to thinking. They have turned over in their minds the results of these various ventures, scarcely any of which would have been made except for the organization, and they find that the only people who have profited by the long series of controversies have been the "professional organizers" who run the Knights, and who are never so happy as when they are making mischief.

The attitude of the shoemakers in this city is so significant of the change which is in progress that it merits examination. About a month ago the Knights of Labor issued an order that the men employed in Hanan & Son's manufactory should quit work. There had been trouble in the shop last fall, growing out of the interference of the Executive Committee of District Assembly 91, but on the 16th of February the employees held a meeting and made an agreement to continue work for the coming year at the old rate of wages. On the 16th of March, one Gill and two other members of the Executive Committee called upon the proprietors and demanded the discharge of a man named Dunphy, threatening to order a strike if the firm did not comply. The senior Hanan told Gill, the spokesman, that they would never yield to his demands, because they had been advised that they should render themselves liable to prosecution for damages if they discharged Dunphy. He also reminded Gill that such a demand was unlawful and in violation of the Penal Code, and that those making it rendered themselves liable to arrest for conspiracy. Gill replied that he did not care anything for the Penal Code or the laws against conspiracy, and was able to take care of himself. Mr. Hanan told him to put his demand in writing, and he sat down at the desk and began to write. Mr. Hanan asked him to explain why the demand was made, when he stopped and said: "I guess I won't commit myself in ink." Finding that nothing was to be gained by further discussion, the Executive Committee withdrew and ordered a strike.

Frank P. Campbell, the foreman of the shop, is a Knight of Labor, and so prominent that he is Master Workman of a local Assembly in Tarrytown where his home is; but he seems to be a man with a mind of his own, and, when the order was given to quit work, he refused to budge. Most of the workmen stood with him in refusing to strike when they had no grievance, simply to gratify the whim of an Executive Committee, and the places of the few who left were quickly filled. District Assembly 91 promptly suspended Mr. Campbell as Master Workman of his local assembly for such contumacy, and on Saturday he carried his appeal from this ruling to the office of 49. As he handed it to the Secretary, Master-Workman Quinn stood by, and a *Sun* reporter, who fortunately chanced to be near, gives this account of the interview between them:

Mr. Quinn—You are working there still?
Mr. Campbell—I am, and I don't think——
Mr. Quinn—Oh, you go to blank!
Mr. Campbell—What power have you got to send me there? Who are you, any way? I am as good a man as you.
Mr. Quinn—If it had not been for you, your men would have come out.
Mr. Campbell—Your committee had no right to call my men out. I don't obey such orders, and never will. The men would not come out without cause.
Mr. Quinn—No wonder they [the proprietors] can go on with their work when such scabs as you work for them.
Mr. Campbell—I suppose if I sat in beer saloons all day, and smoked cigars which other people paid for, you might like me better.
Mr. Quinn—I'll black-list you in every shop in the United States.
Mr. Campbell—I don't care a d—— for you. I can live in spite of you. You are getting $1,200 a year from the Assembly for doing nothing but create trouble for honest workmen, but you get no more of my money to support you in loafing round, wearing fine clothes, and smoking good cigars.
Mr. Quinn—Don't you wish you could do it?
At this point Campbell walked out of the office, fearing he might be helped out.

On Sunday about 350 shoemakers, most of them, but not all, from Hanan & Son's, held a meeting to consider the situation. Mr. Campbell made a speech which was so full of common sense that our readers will be glad to see the *Sun's* report of his remarks:

"It is time that a halt was called upon the leaders of the Knights of Labor, and particularly those of District Assemblies 91 and 49, for they surely are losing their heads. The leaders are in receipt of large incomes, and in order to earn them cause useless and nonsensical strikes. Because I would not break a contract that was signed with the full consent of the Knights of Labor, Quinn threatened me with outlawry. Quinn and Maguire sat in secret conclave at midnight, and the edict, like one issued by the Czar, went forth: 'Peremptorily withdraw Campbell.' It is time the shoemakers put down these men. In the Federation of Labor there will be no secret conclaves, no more meetings in the dead of the night. I told Quinn plainly that it was his $1,200 a year he was after, and not the interests of the men he was paid to protect. It comes to this, that these men must be curtailed in their power to issue edicts to ruin any man who opposes them in their schemes. Of what use was this great sympathetic strike of 49 last February? Go to the tenement-houses on the river front and seek out there the starving children of the 'longshoremen who took part in that strike. Many of them have had no work since, and will not get any either, for their employers were angered at their actions. Could not any capable man see how it would result? War is now brought about that the leaders might draw their salaries more consistently, because they filled a large space of the attention of workingmen. It is better that the workingmen be rid of the Maguires, the Quinns, and the Drurys, than that they and their children should be brought into misery and poverty. John E. Gill, Chairman of the Executive Board of Assembly 91, Knights of Labor, has been but two years a shoemaker; yet he is grand dictator of all the shoemakers in this vicinity, and can say how, when, or where real shoemakers shall work."

After this exposition of the matter it was determined by a decisive vote that those present should form themselves into the "Manufacturing Shoemakers' Protective and Benevolent Union, No. 1," leave the Knights of Labor, and join the American Federation of Labor. In the course of the discussion another shoemaker, Thomas P. Masterson, talked in much the same strain as Mr. Campbell. The only plan for workingmen, he said, was to organize themselves into trade unions. Cigarmakers ought not to say how much money a shoemaker should get. The workingmen had grown tired of the mystical order. When they came to star-chamber business, the people began to watch for crooked work, and without the confidence of the people the order could not stand. "One man near the head of affairs," said Mr. Masterson, "went into a Park Row saloon and got $20 on a forged check, and those are the kind of men that give orders to us. If these are the angels in disguise sent to lift up the earth, the sooner they drop it the better."

At the same time with this revolt against the Knights in New York, an equally encouraging movement in the same direction is reported

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from New England. For some time there has been growing discontent among boot and shoe cutters in that part of the country because of the tyranny of the Knights, and they have finally decided to form an organization of their own. A most significant feature of this movement is the fact that the platform adopted takes the ground that "strikes and lockouts are wrong in principle, and tend to work harm, and are not for the interests of either employer or employee, and should not be resorted to until all other measures have failed."

AFTER THE IRONSIDES ON A TRICYCLE. —II.

At Marston Moor the snake had been *scotched* for the Parliament, but not killed. In another year the King was once more in the field, energetic and enterprising. By means of the "Self-denying Ordinance," Parliament swept incapables out of places of command; by means of the "New Model" it invigorated its army in the rank and file. The noble Fairfax, his face honorably disfigured by the scar of Marston Moor, was put at the head, with Cromwell for second in command. Following on the track of Fairfax as he sought the Cavaliers, in June, 1645, I pushed my tricycle through an upland region, until at length, on a point six hundred feet above the sea-level, a tall spire rose before me. I passed through a rather shabby village, and, after a dinner at the inn, during which I admired the beautiful horse-chestnut trees in the churchyard opposite, I turned on my machine northward, and was presently in a by-road, between high hawthorn hedges. A steep declivity carried me from the plateau into low ground through which flowed a brook, a slope down which I rushed with my hand on the brake, while the air rung in my ears. At the foot was a gate at the roadside, opening which I followed a cart path to the "Broad-Moor Farm." In a great field, rising gradually towards the tall spire which I had left behind, I saw to my left, as I made my way rather painfully along the rough track, the Broad-Moor farmer and his men pitching into cocks, ready for the wagon, the heavy windrows of hay just thoroughly cured by the August sun. I went to the group through the stubble on foot, and the strong farmer, leaning on his pitchfork, received me well.

I now stood in the centre of the battle-field of Naseby, on the declivity of "Mill Hill." A mile northward the ground rose from the lowland in an answering ridge, "Dust Hill"; beyond which still another height could be seen, "Sibbertoft Ridge." The names are all as on the battle day, and the appearance of things quite unchanged except that, as at Marston Moor, what was then partially waste land is now thoroughly cultivated, and a few hedges divide what was then unenclosed.

On the morning of June 14, 1645, Fairfax, marching out from Naseby, saw from Mill Hill the flashing pikes and waving pennons of the King just coming into view over Sibbertoft Ridge to the north. Presently they were on Dust Hill, whence the drums and trumpets and even the voices of the captains must have sounded clearly across. Fairfax, withdrawing a furlong or so, into a hollow behind Mill Hill, made his dispositions. To the west, on his left flank, behind "Sulby Hedge" (the name and the hedge are still there), he put the Anabaptist Major of Cuirassiers Okey, who led a force of excellent troops, dragoons, for the time being dismounted, but with their horses close by. Next to Okey ran the left wing under Henry Ireton, once a scholar and lawyer, one of the best brains and stoutest hearts in England, Cromwell's favorite, afterwards his son-in-law, for the first time that day in high command, promoted for his merit from a captaincy over the heads of many older soldiers. Behind a "forlorn hope" of musketeers stood as centre five regiments of foot under the doughty and genial old Skippon, leader of the London trained bands, a campaigner from the Low Countries, whose shout to his men peals cheerily out of the past: "Come, my boys, my brave boys! let us pray heartily and fight heartily. I will run the same fortunes and hazards with you. Remember the cause is for God and for the defence of yourselves, your wives, and your children!" Behind the centre was a reserve under Pride, a foundling and once a drayman, destined to be hereafter the hero of "Pride's Purge," and Hammond, a gentleman and Oxford scholar—impetuous fighters both. So in the "New Model" high and low-born stood shoulder to shoulder. We find the Ironsides on the east, constituting the Roundhead right, six regiments, of which Cromwell held two in reserve. The one destined on this day to be especially noticeable was led by Whalley, afterwards the regicide who fled for his life to New England, the hero of one of the most familiar and picturesque of our colonial traditions (exploded, alas!), the saving of Hadley in the Connecticut Valley from Indian attack, near the time of Philip's War. The baggage was in the rear of Ireton, to the west of Naseby, guarded by a thin line of matchlock men, ranged round it in a circle.

As to the King's array, Rupert, smarting under the recollection of his beating, longed to cross swords once more with Cromwell. He was, however, opposed to Ireton; while Sir Marmaduke Langdale, a thin, serious Yorkshireman, one of the King's best soldiers, had the place the Prince desired for himself. Sir Marmaduke had the drawback of a hasty temper; and now, as the battle was joining, hot words were exchanged between him and his subordinates, a want of union most ill-timed when the points that glinted on the opposite hill-side were those of the Ironsides. Between Rupert and Sir Marmaduke, with a strong reserve behind, the centre was led by Sir Jacob Astley, a fine type of the better Cavaliers, trained by the great Gustavus, his fire not at all extinguished under his gray hairs. One wonders whether, as he stood before his array, he repeated the naïve trooper's prayer which he is said to have uttered at Edgehill: "Lord, Thou knowest how busy I must be this day, but if I forget Thee do not Thou forget me!" The forces on both sides were in number scarcely half of those engaged at Marston Moor, but the troops were magnificent and the leaders the thrice-sifted corn.

As I went over on the field the story of the battle with the kind farmer at my side, I could trace narrowly the position of the two lines—solid English masses facing one another in the middle of the beautiful June forenoon, scarcely distinguishable except that the Cavaliers wore a green sprig and the Roundheads their badge of white. The standards of the former, of course, were far gayer and more numerous. The Puritan ensign is said to have displayed five Bibles on a ground of black. Over the King's centre burned the royal banner of crimson, embroidered in gold with a crown and lion. One troop bore the white silk streamer of the Queen, another a flag of flowered damask; while from the right flew a sky-blue color, that with which Rupert had replaced the one lost the year before by the White Syke.

"Prince Rupert's lodge," an old farm building which tradition makes to have been his temporary headquarters, was half a mile from us, on the opposite rise. Down the gentle descent before it I followed with my eye the track of his horsemen when, thinking Fairfax was retreating as he withdrew behind Mill Hill to form, the Prince spurred hotly forward. Just here to the right it was that Charles, in complete armor, with fine horsemanship, and with all the majesty of mien which a King should have, rode along his front. "Soldiers, will you fight for me?" he cried. "All! all!" was the enthusiastic answer, mingled with shouts of "Queen Mary," the watch-word, as the solemn ranks of Fairfax, amid prayers and psalms, pealed "God with us!"

Between ten and eleven, as Rupert descended, Fairfax reappeared on the slope thoroughly ready. We find the same simple but desperate tactics as at Marston Moor. Down either slope masses of horsemen flung themselves upon each other with cries and clashing and awful thunder of hoofs. As the mad flood of Cavaliers swept along Sulby Hedge, the dragoons in ambush behind the dense hawthorn poured in a heavy flanking fire. Okey declared afterwards that, peering through the leaves and the dust, he saw the King himself leading a troop most valiantly. The dragoons gave themselves up for lost. The Roundhead colonels of the left struggled desperately to hold their men, but they were mercilessly overridden and sabred; Rupert's rearing chargers pushed irresistibly onward while the bright blades flashed in the sun, driving before them what soon became a headlong mass of fugitives. So the wave rolled over Ireton. But as always, Rupert went too fast and too far, drawing rein first, with his horses all spent, when he reached the baggage-train beyond Naseby. An eye-witness who sat there within the circle of matchlock men tells graphically how the troopers rode up, the Prince in front in a red Spanish cap: we may suppose that, being out of the mêlée, he had laid aside his helmet, under the hot sun, for something lighter. The captain of the baggage-train, believing him to be Fairfax, asked him, hat in hand, how the battle was going. The Prince asked in turn if he would have quarter; thereat the matchlock men trained their sights upon the intruders, who made no attack.

On the east, Sir Marmaduke, as brave as Rupert, had spurred with his troopers against the Roundhead right; but Cromwell launched against them the regiment of Whalley, who met them in full career, and again the Malignants were given as stubble to the swords of the Ironsides. The ground was here difficult for the Parliament troops, but everything was broken through, till the scene on the west was repeated on the east with the parties reversed. But Cromwell never went too fast or too far. At the centre the foot stood until noon in the closest conflict—mutual volleys, then a rushing forward into push of pike. Sir Jacob held the King's men so sternly to their work that Skippon gave ground. While bringing up succor, he found his armor broken and his side pierced by a bullet; but he shouted that he would not stir "so long as a man shall stand." For a time all seemed lost. Had only Rupert been at hand! But now Oliver, having trampled out Sir Marmaduke, thunders promptly on the royalist rear. Ireton from the west, rallying a party of his routed and overridden men, smites in on the flank, hip and thigh. His horse is shot, his leg pierced with a pike, his face gored with a halbert thrust. Thus maimed and bloody, he is taken prisoner, but presently retaken; and the blow he inflicts is at once repeated by the dragoons, who, galloping across from Sulby Hedge, dash in unopposed. Fairfax, too, is at hand with his life guard. Under the hot noon the Roundheads beat all to the earth, Sir Jacob making his way with difficulty from under the hoofs of the horses. One regiment stands like the "White Coats" in the White Syke Close. Fairfax charges them twice in vain. Struck simultaneously in front and rear, they melt, disdaining to be spared, until the Roundheads meet in their centre, Fairfax himself seiz-

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ing their pennon from the hand of its bearer as he falls.

It is said that Rupert, supposing the battle gained, returned at a leisurely pace, his helmet laid aside, while he continued to wear, after his charge, his comfortable cap. Upon Mill Hill he was undeceived; but his horses were blown, his men scattered, and their ardor relaxed. He might even then have helped the hard-pressed Astley; but suddenly, out of the battle-smoke, the reserve of the Ironsides broke upon him, and his formation was shattered. The King, too, before all was lost, flinging himself in front of a fine body of horse which he had held back, addressed them with spirit. "Give one charge more," he cried, "and recover the day." At the same time he put spurs to his steed, and was in the act of leaping forward; but a timid Scotch courtier suddenly laid hands upon the King's bridle. "Will you go upon your death in an instant?" said he. Before Charles could prevent, his charger swerved, and word ran through the troops that they were to wheel to the right. The unfortunate King seemed to set an example of flight; a sudden panic seized all, and a mad rout tore northward. The remorseless squadrons of Cromwell were instantly upon them, and the roads were strewn with slaughtered fugitives. What frenzy of the war-horse! what fierce exulting of the fanatic rider, shouting the war cries of Hebrew Joshua, his weapon heavy as a weaver's beam! The long locks were sweat through and dishevelled, the scarfs and embroidery rent and blood-stained in the agony of that summer afternoon.

"Fools! your doublets shone with gold, and your hearts were gay and bold,
As you kissed your lily hands to your lemans to-day;
But to-morrow shall the fox, from her chamber in the rocks,
Lead forth her tawny cubs to howl above the prey!
Where be your tongues that late mocked at Heaven, and Hell, and Fate,
And your fingers that once were so busy with your blades?
Your perfumed satin clothes, your catches and your oaths,
Your stage-plays and your sonnets, your diamonds and your spades?
Down, down, for ever down with the Mitre and the Crown!
They shall tremble when they think of the edge of England's sword;
And the kings of earth in fear shall shudder when they hear
What the hand of God hath wrought for the Houses and the Word."

The Broad-Moor farmer leaned on his fork; the horses caught a few mouthfuls from the windrow. Down there in the cart-path the tricycle waited where Astley must have come forward as the Puritan centre gave way. Just here it must have been that Skippon staggered; from the thorns Pride must have hurried with his succor. I saw that when I had come down the hill with a rush, the air ringing in my ears, I was precisely in the track of Whalley when the Ironsides threw themselves upon Sir Marmaduke. One of the laborers came forward with two corroded bullets in his palm; he showed me where he found them, near where the reserve had charged the flank of Rupert. I bought them for a shilling. They whistled in the hearing of Cromwell; perhaps they came from the pistol of the Prince. As I write these lines, they are my paper-weights. Bidding the farmer good-bye, I pushed the machine across the field through the stubble, with some difficulty, to the western verge. (If one sweats a little at Naseby, perhaps the story grows more real.) A boy who guided me pointed out three or four depressions on the declivity of Mill Hill, still traceable and with a rank growth of weeds about. They are the pits, says tradition, in which were buried the slain men and horses. The officers lie under the spire of Naseby church.

A gate let me through Sulby Hedge to the high road. From the ambush of the dragoons here I took my last look in the light of the late afternoon. There was the sod that had been dinted by Rupert's war-horse, and had drunk the blood of Ireton. No spears that day glittered upon Sibbertoft Ridge; cattle fed quietly in the field where the poltroon hand baulked the King's last charge. How narrow was the chance of victory! For three hours it was a most doubtful fight. Defeat would have been utter destruction for the Independents, for the majority of the nation were about ready to overlook all and restore the King. Victory for the Cavaliers would have been the death of freedom in England, and perhaps not in England alone. The King lost, and this time lost utterly. I remember the Broad-Moor farmer told me his fork was of American make, and I believe the grass had been mowed by an American machine. America has reaped another harvest from that field than one of hay! Naseby is said to be Navelsby, the centre of England. In the history of the English-speaking race, few events are more central than Naseby battle!

NOTES ON THE WINDWARD ISLANDS.

ON BOARD THE BARRACOUTA, March, 1887.

THE first thing that arrests the attention of the visitor to the Windward Islands is the unwonted splendor of tropical vegetation. This may be seen in its greatest perfection in the island of Martinique, but it has been described so often by letter writers, and is examined so minutely and depicted so enthusiastically by Charles Kingsley in his 'At Last,' which is in the hands of every tourist, that I shall not attempt to say again what has been so well said by others. I have not, however, seen any adequate description of the view presented to the eye of the passer on shipboard by the lofty volcanic cones and sloping cane fields of St. Kitts, Montserrat, Nevis, and St. Lucia. The mountains to their summits and down into their craters are embowered in vegetation so dense that it can hardly be penetrated by man. Half way down begins the checker-board of cultivated fields laid off in sugar cane in various stages of advancement, with here and there brown bits of fallow land that give variety to the picture, together with white shining towers of sugar factories and the sweeping arms of windmills. An artist of even less grasp than Church or Bierstadt might make both fortune and fame by putting on canvas these glorious vistas.

The next thing that presses upon the mind of a thoughtful observer is the extreme poverty of the inhabitants—a poverty such as one can hardly form any conception of in the United States. The inhabitants are nearly all negroes and mulattoes. In Barbados 8¼ per cent. of the population are white, but this is quite exceptional. In Antigua the whites are 5 per cent., in St. Kitts, Nevis, Dominica, Grenada, and Demerara (British Guiana) less than 2 per cent. In all the lesser Antilles taken together the whites cannot number more than 4 in 100 of the population, and the proportion of whites is diminishing.

The wage of laboring men throughout the islands is about twenty cents per day of our money—oftener less than more. What can a man buy for himself and family with twenty cents? Suppose that his wife earns as much as himself, and that they have three children—they cannot have a less number if the population of the island is kept good. The commonly reported and commonly received opinion is, that the African laborer of the West Indies lives, or may live, on the spontaneous productions of the bountiful soil and climate, by rooting around in the earth or plucking fruit along the roadway as he goes to and from his labor. The fact is, that the islands do not produce one-twentieth of the food necessary to keep the bodies and souls of these poor people together (*vide* Salmon's 'Crown Colonies of Great Britain'). Nineteen-twentieths must come from abroad, and mostly from the United States of America. Now the question recurs, what can a family of five get to live upon with 40 cents per day (supposing the man and woman have steady employment and no sickness), being obliged to bring the bulk of their food from New York and pay 30 per cent. duties on it—an interesting fact—in addition to freight and middlemen's profits? The corn laws of the West India islands are a greater shame than those of England in the last generation, because the poor negroes do not know what hurts them, and would not be able to better themselves if they did know.

It is said by well-fed people who take a cheerful view of the situation, that the West Indian negro is spared the expense of fuel, and that he needs very little clothing in that warm climate. It is true that the minimum of clothing suffices to protect the body. The very scantiest raiment consistent with decency is the type of all the islands. Nearly all, men, women, and children, go barefooted, and most of the older men show deformities, such as the loss of toes, resulting from the want of protection to the feet. As to fuel, I observed in all the market-places little piles of charcoal, about as much as would serve to boil a teakettle, which were offered at one cent per pile. Nobody bought more than a cent's worth, but when that calls for 5 per cent. of a man's total earnings it must be made account of. Give the American laborer all his fuel and clothing free, and then ask him to work for twenty cents per day—nay, compel him to do so or starve—and what would be the result?

What has brought this melancholy condition of things upon some of the fairest and richest portions of the earth's surface? The amount of wealth produced by these islands in the last two centuries is vast beyond imagination. Why are they now in the depths of poverty? Why are the landowners for the most part bankrupt, while their laborers are on a scale of diet that would be considered in Baxter Street the verge of starvation? This question is not to be answered in a hasty way and after a superficial glance. But it appears to me that if all the produce of a country, however rich its soil, were removed from it every year except just sufficient to sustain the lives of the cultivators, and to induce them to rear children, so that there could be no growth of capital there, then if some untoward event, some revolution of industry, should take place, superseding or greatly depressing the chief and almost sole product of the country, the result would be about what is now witnessed in the Windward Islands. The absentee landlord has carried away the yearly produce and spent it in England or on the continent of Europe year after year, and generation after generation. Nothing has been left as a reserve fund. Worse than all, the absentee landlord has had little knowledge of his estate and little care for his laborers. His overseer or local representative has been under the necessity of getting the largest sum out of the property each year, and has not been compelled to make an intelligent forecast of the future from time to time, or able to put his ideas into practice if he should do so. Thus it has come about that sugar-growing is the sole reliance of most of the islands; cocoa is now grown to a limited but increasing extent on Grenada and Trinidad. Orange groves were cut down during the heyday of sugar to make room for cane. It is a fact most strange to the visitor from the United States that oranges cannot be procured among the islands in sufficient number to supply the tables of passing steamers. Our steward took out a supply from New York sufficient to last us to Santa Cruz. After that we went orangeless to Demerara. There we obtained a moderate supply, and a few more at Port of Spain, Trinidad, but we

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could find none in the markets at Barbados, Antigua, Montserrat, or St. Kitts. The case was even worse as regards pineapples. One specimen of this delicious fruit was brought on shipboard at St. Kitts as a present to the Captain. Its aroma pervaded the whole cabin and excited the passengers with the expectation of a grand treat, for which they would have paid roundly and gladly, but not another pineapple could be "scared up" on the whole island, nor did we see another until we arrived at Demerara, 600 miles further south. This is mentioned by way of illustrating the utter want of diversified industry and the fatal monopoly of sugar-growing throughout the lesser Antilles.

Well, sugar has come to grief as a paying crop. Two pounds of it will not buy one pound of flour in any of the islands. The wholesale price of sugar is higher in Barbados than at any other port, because the facilities for shipment to foreign countries are greater there than elsewhere. At Barbados the price is $1.80 per 100 pounds, and no money is to be made either in raising or handling it. The absentee landlords are ruined, and the holders of mortgages on their estates are little better off. One of the best estates on Antigua was sold under mortgage while we were there "for a song." There is a universal wail among the whites, and a great outcry against the sugar bounties of Europe, and a great longing for annexation to the United States. The blacks know nothing about governments, either local or foreign, but they echo what they hear from the whites. A mulatto on the island of Montserrat, with marked Irish features and a pronounced brogue, said to me that he "would rather see the flag of New York flying over this island than the flag of Great Britain." He added that he had nothing to say against Great Britain, but that he believed New York would make business better for the people. The secret of the desire for annexation to the United States is that our customs duties on sugar would be thrown off as to the islands, and the price to the seller would be nearly or quite doubled. This is a consideration which overtops everything. There is no political ill-will toward Great Britain in the islands. Nor is there reason for any, unless it be that England, absorbed in affairs of greater moment, gives little heed to them, and allows them to drift whither they will. This is not a just cause for ill-will on the part of the handful of whites, for they constitute a tight monopoly of the Government on each island. The negro knows nothing about government except as he feels its restraining power now and then. If you were to talk to him about taxation, for instance, he would not understand you. An exception must be made of a few, a very few, educated mulattoes on each island, who are shrewd men of business, and are white men for all purposes except color.

The masses are sunk in deep, dense ignorance so far as social and economic laws are concerned. Would it be believed that the working classes of Demerara and Trinidad suffer themselves to be taxed to pay the cost of bringing coolies from Calcutta to compete against them in a labor market which yields wages of only 20 cents per day? This is what has been going on more or less for forty years and is still going on. Seven-tenths of the passage-money of every cooly "apprentice" brought out from India is paid out of the food-tax levied on the negroes of those colonies, and yet they make no complaint. They make no complaint of anything. They are kindly, docile, good-natured, universally polite, deeply religious, and grossly immoral, according to our standards. About 66 per cent. of the births are illegitimate—so I was informed by the Bishop of the northern islands, a robust and hearty and hard-working servant of God, who took passage on our steamer at Antigua, to visit his charges in the Virgin Islands. His explanation of this incongruity was that sufficient time has not yet elapsed since the régime of slavery, when every woman with African blood in her veins was at the command of some white man, and practically of any white man, to eradicate the ideas and customs bred by so gross a system. The negro is religious by nature, but he cannot as yet connect religion and morality together. This is the testimony of all the religious instructors whom I met. There is some progress, however, sufficient to warrant the belief that with a moderate degree of prosperity enabling them to live decently, so that a home life might spring up, more correct ideas concerning the virtue of women and the sacredness of marriage would prevail. At present there is no public opinion among them which condemns illegitimacy. It does not pass with them for a sin. Schools for children are, however, numerous and well attended, and no distinctions of color are allowed or thought of among the pupils.

THE COERCION BILL.

DUBLIN, April 9, 1887.

WE have now before us the text of the "Criminal Law Amendment (Ireland) Bill." As expounded by Mr. Balfour it sounded badly enough; in the columns of the newspapers it read worse; but in the official form, in eleven foolscap folio pages of leaded pica (how innocent the clear type and printing look!) the bill recalls Burke's definition of the Penal Laws: "a Machine of wise and elaborate contrivance, and as well fitted for the oppression, impoverishment, and degradation of a people . . . as ever proceeded from the perverted ingenuity of man." In sober truth, this is a cunningly devised instrument for the political degradation of Ireland. Severe as the bill appears, however, it may, if passed, be administered with timid leniency. But there it would stand, poisoning the relations between the classes and between the countries—an insult to all Irish men and Irishwomen.

To understand its scope, we must read it in connection with the "Whiteboy Acts" which it incorporates. To understand its possible effects, the instrumentality through which it would be administered must be considered. Such an act, applied to a free country during a period of local or sectional disturbance, would have numerous and weighty safeguards in its working which this act would not have in Ireland. Its application here would be in the hands of the Lord Lieutenant. He is independent of the pressure of Irish public opinion. He is generally more or less of a puppet, and, at all events, whether puppet or not (as was well shown in the case of Lord Spencer), is entirely dependent for information and policy upon those by whom he is surrounded at the Castle, for the most part permanent and irremovable paid officials, and upon the class here most opposed to the mass of the people. Next to slave-owners, or the descendants of slave-owners living among liberated slaves, it is doubtful whether elsewhere such contempt and suspicion were ever entertained by one section of society towards another as that which is here felt towards the people by the governing class. That class it is which formulates the opinion influencing the Lord Lieutenant. From that governing class the "resident magistrates" are drawn upon whose judgment would depend the application of the Act. Clause 11, section 6, it is true, provides that one on each bench "shall be a person of the sufficiency of whose legal knowledge the Lord Lieutenant shall be satisfied." What a comment the necessity for this clause is upon the administration of justice in Ireland! It is, however, pretty safe to say that not a single "resident magistrate" would be asked to go through a course of legal training, and not one would be dismissed for deficiency of legal knowledge. And, whether trained or not, they will breathe the same mental atmosphere, read the same newspapers, and be influenced by the same prejudices and considerations as those of the class against whom in the present Irish struggle the mass of the people are pitted. These "resident magistrates" are for the most part the needy scions or friends of wealthy or aristocratic families. They do not mean to be unjust; but they have not been subjected to any legal or mental training to fit them for their posts.

As to the bill itself, the application of which would lie with the Lord Lieutenant, it differs from all previous Coercion Acts, so far as I remember them, in that it would not be limited in time, but would be perpetual. Even where no one is charged with the commission of an offence, magistrates might compel the attendance of persons and hold an inquiry; witnesses not to be excused from answering any question on the ground that the answer may criminate or tend to criminate themselves; such crimination, however, not to be admissible against the witness in any proceeding, civil or criminal. Resident magistrates would be given summary jurisdiction in agrarian cases, and might inflict penalties up to six months' imprisonment with hard labor. Under the incorporated Whiteboy Acts, any twelve persons meeting together and not dispersing on the proclamation of a magistrate, or not dispersing when the magistrate has been prevented from making such proclamation, would be liable to six months' imprisonment with hard labor. The right of political combination and the liberty of the press would be handed over entirely to the Lord Lieutenant by the following sections, which render the following persons liable to six months' imprisonment with hard labor:

"Any person who shall take part in any criminal conspiracy to compel or induce any person or persons, either not to fulfil his or their legal obligation, or not to let, hire, use, or occupy any land, or not to deal with, work for, or hire any person or persons in the ordinary course of trade, business, or occupation; or to interfere with the administration of the law. . . . Any person who by words or acts shall incite, solicit or encourage or persuade any other person to commit any of the offences hereinbefore mentioned. . . . [Under the incorporated Whiteboy Acts] any person or persons who shall knowingly print, write, post, publish, circulate, send, or deliver, or cause or procure to be printed, written, posted published, circulated, sent, or delivered any notice, letter, or message, exciting or tending to excite any riot, tumultuous or unlawful meeting, or assembly, or unlawful combination or confederacy, . . . or directing or requiring any person to do or not to do any acts or to quit the service or employment of any person, or to let or to give up any land."

"It is a plain fact," writes the *Pall Mall Gazette*, "that once the bill is passed, no editor in a proclaimed district will be able to print or comment on any statistics as to the fall in prices without rendering himself liable to imprisonment (with hard labor) for six months, without a jury to try him." Offences declared legal under the Trades-Union Acts would be technically exempted from the operation of above clauses, though it is not clear where the line could be drawn. When desired by the Government, criminals would be tried before special, not ordinary juries. (Ordinary juries are taken from the average ratepayers; special juries from those who occupy premises above a certain value—in Dublin, of £50, rating or about £100 rent, corresponding, probably, to three or four times that amount in one of your business centres.) The venue could be changed to any other county or district than that within which the alleged offence has been committed; and in cases of murder and man-

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slaughter, attempt to murder, violence against the person, arson, assaulting or injuring a dwelling-house, however such crime may be described in an indictment, the venue might, by the permission of the Attorney-General for England, be changed to England.

The Lord Lieutenant would be given the power to suppress "any association which he believes to be a dangerous association." He must, however, lay a copy of his proclamation before Parliament, if sitting, before seven days; and if Parliament were not sitting and were not to meet within twenty days, such proclamation would stand for only one week. One week would, however, be amply sufficient to cripple or break up any political association, and certainly no such proclamation would be issued unless with the approval of the Cabinet.

Such are the main provisions of the bill. There is little doubt that this bill, perhaps with some modifications, will be passed into law. The advocates of the measure are not likely to falter in their determination. What can the Opposition do? A powerful feeling may be aroused in England against the measure; with its promoters *Irish* public opinion is of no account. We shall have strong speaking by men like Mr. Morley, and strong writing in the *Pall Mall* and other papers; but what does that matter to the Government, so long as the Parliamentary majority is assured? They are pledged to make the experiment, to stand or fall by the issue, and they will hardly compromise themselves by retracing their steps. The present is different from other great party struggles regarding Ireland. Previous contests were, in the main, between a party that had a certain policy regarding Ireland and a party that had only the negative policy of letting her alone. We now have two parties depending mainly upon a distinct and definite Irish policy. The issue is more momentous than ever before. If Lord Salisbury succeed, we shall not have home rule, and his party will probably enjoy a long term of office. If Lord Salisbury fail, Mr. Gladstone will return to power and we shall have home rule. Neither party can flinch.

The bill has the warm approval of the upper class in Ireland, and, in the main, of the Protestant middle class. Its introduction tends to consolidate and strengthen the National party. Many who had withdrawn from active participation in the details of politics are now again earnestly coöperating in the movement. We cannot accept all the shibboleths of party; but, before such a bill as this, minor considerations are forgotten. Many who a year ago, under the sunshine of a home-rule viceroyalty, were beginning to bud out into Nationalists, have returned to their former proclivities; but men the tendency of whose lives and thoughts were National are more and more decidedly taking sides. The young generation of Protestants is very powerfully influenced towards nationality. The crisis is stimulating anti-Home-Rulers to unwonted exertions in the formation of associations, the collection of funds, the preparation and dissemination of literature. The open expression of their real sentiments regarding the majority of their countrymen will make their position in the country, upon the establishment of home rule, more difficult than it otherwise would have been. If home rule could have been suddenly obtained, these anti-Nationalists could have remained uncommitted by that full expression of their opinions in which they feel safe under the present régime.

On the National side in Ireland there is less bitterness; the position is being regarded with more good humor than at any previous similar crisis. This, of course, arises from the consciousness that we are now in alliance with a powerful English party, through whose assistance we are sure ultimately to win. There are in Ireland elements of disorder and unrest that will tax to the utmost the patience and statesmanship of any rulers, National or otherwise. The weight and influence of the National party desire to be on the side of law and order. Opposition to the bill does not arise from a love of misrule, but from the conviction that disorder can be effectually combated only by an Irish administration for Irish affairs, in accordance with the prejudices and sentiments of the people. The more the subject is carefully considered by liberal-minded Englishmen, the more they will learn that the tendency of such an administration would be surely, if perhaps slowly, towards the establishment of law and order here, and of an amicable and workable relation between the countries, while a coercive policy such as that proposed would have an opposite tendency. If the bill pass and be worked to the satisfaction of the ascendancy class, the middle class in England will be soon disgusted with the measure. If it be not worked to their satisfaction, the present movement will in time compel them to come to some settlement.

I have said nothing regarding the land proposals of the Government. So far as known, they are condemned by Mr. Parnell and by the National party. (It is well recollected that Mr. Parnell has never been belied in his condemnation of any measure relating to Ireland.) An effectual land bill from the Conservative party relying upon the support of the Irish Conservatives is more than we can expect. In any case, certainly no measures accompanied or preceded by coercive legislation can tend to the pacification of Ireland. The miserable hopelessness of the coercion policy must be becoming apparent to Englishmen. The cartoon in this week's *Punch* is very significant—Lord Salisbury, as Sisyphus, at full strain, pushing a huge "Irish problem" up a rocky height, and, underneath, the lines:

"Unending task . . .
Swift roll the years and still the ceaseless round,
The toilsome press up the precipitous ground,
The sullen slow ascent, the swift rebound."

D. B.

THE CONQUEST OF UPPER BURMAH.

LONDON, March 29, 1887.

THE course which events have taken in Upper Burmah has not fulfilled the official expectation. The war was entered upon in the confident assurance that the advent of British rule would be hailed with acclamation by the subjects of King Theebaw. This assurance rested upon a conviction—altogether mistaken, as events have shown—that English rule and English officialism were firmly rooted in the hearts and affections of the people of British Burmah. For a time, indeed, nothing occurred which ran counter to these comfortable opinions. Mandalay, the capital of Upper Burmah, was occupied on the 28th of November, 1885, only eleven days after the British troops had crossed their own frontier. The troops had encountered only the merest semblance of resistance. King Theebaw was deposed, and conveyed to British territory, without, so far as appeared, exciting his former subjects to either pity or anger. And on the 31st of December, 1885, her Majesty's Government informed Lord Dufferin that they "derived special gratification on learning from your Excellency that the British force was welcomed by the inhabitants of the country as a deliverance from past and existing evils, and as the prelude for the establishment of British rule, for which the people, according to the reports received from the commander of the expedition, evinced a genuine desire." This hallucination that any and every free people dwelling in the vicinity of British India is pining to be subjugated and annexed, is one which no amount of experience can eradicate from the bosom of the Anglo-Indian official. It is not of the slightest use for the threatened people to protest that they have no such desire. He waves aside all such protests as merely conventional forms of Oriental politeness He knows better; and he has, under any circumstances, a mission to humanity which he must discharge, whatever their own foolish and ignorant wishes may be. Upper Burmah, accordingly, was annexed, and almost immediately afterwards our troubles began.

What took the Indian Government most completely by surprise was that the most vehement protest against the extinction of the native dynasty in Upper Burmah arose from our own subjects in British Burmah. The deposition of King Theebaw was a signal for the outbreak of a fierce and bloody insurrection among the people whom we had been governing for thirty years—entirely to our own satisfaction. The fact of this insurrection was carefully and successfully concealed from the knowledge of Parliament and the British nation. It was said to be no more than an outbreak of "dacoity." Its real character, however, has been made known in a little book just published by Mr. Mackenzie Smeaton, an English civilian.

"While," he writes, "our army was far away north, on the Irawaddy, a real campaign—and a bloody one—was being prepared for us in the low country. The people do not want us any more than they did thirty years ago. They rose to throw off our yoke, and they are still carrying on a guerilla warfare against us. . . . It has frequently been said that there is no patriotism, no national sentiment among the Burmese. Those who know the country best will, I am convinced, hesitate to admit this. The inhabitants of Lower Burmah have undoubtedly prospered under our government. This they readily allow; but they never bargained for the overthrow of their ancient monarchy. They were proud to know that a Burmese King somewhere ruled a Burmese people; and the allegiance of their hearts was given to the King—not to the British Government."

Lower Burmah at this time was almost wholly denuded of troops, and so general was the revolt that Mr. Smeaton is of opinion that the Queen's Government would for a time have ceased to exist but for the timely appearance of a singular and unlooked-for ally. Among the many races which find a home in those mountains between which the Irawaddy River cuts a way to the sea is that of the Karens. By the Burmese they have always been despised and oppressed as a race of irreclaimable savages; and savages, in truth, they are, but with this peculiarity, that there survive among them traditions of a religion which they once possessed, and which bear a most astonishing resemblance to passages from the Old and New Testaments. It was, moreover, a general expectation cherished among these wild hillmen, at a period long anterior to the coming of the English, that a race of white men were the destined agents for restoring the knowledge of this ancient religion among them. Having this expectation to aid them, American missionaries—the successors of Dr. Judson—have preached Christianity among the Karen villages with a very large measure of success. The Karens have accepted their teaching, not, as in the case of other Asiatic converts, as involving a rupture with a cherished past, but as a recovery of it. So far as Christianity has spread, it has breathed a new life into these wild mountaineers.

"Once," writes Mr. Smeaton, "a village has embraced Christianity, it feels itself a head and shoulders above its neighbors, and all the energies of the people are at once employed in making the village worthy of the name. No labor, no expense are spared. The Christian village must be clean, healthy, neat; it must have the best school and the best church they can afford. Nothing will satisfy till all these are accomplished facts,

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Money aid from the missionaries is not sought; the people do it all themselves—plan, contrive, carry out. They are proud of their new condition, and their zeal knows no bounds. Their children must be well dressed and educated, better tillers of the soil, better hunters, better foresters than their fathers, because they are now animated by a new spirit, fired with a new zeal, and their wits sharpened by education."

When the insurrection broke out in British Burmah, these Christianized mountaineers placed their services, *en masse* and without solicitation, at the disposal of the Government. They took the field, under the leadership of their tribal chiefs, and fairly suppressed the revolt by sheer hard fighting and persistent marching.

I have referred to this episode in the latest Burmese war, firstly, because it is almost unknown, and, secondly, because it shows that missionary labor in India is doing more for the consolidation of British rule than is the Government itself. These Karens have been altogether neglected by the English authorities. All places of public trust open to the native population were retained exclusively for Burmese. The Karens were deemed to be an ignorant, savage, and cowardly race, fit only to be hewers of wood and drawers of water. The fact, however, of a common religion ranged them on the side of the English when the more favored race had flung off their allegiance. And so it will be found to be throughout India. The only part of the people that is genuinely loyal to the British Crown—who, in other words, prefer British rule to any other that could be set up in its stead—are the Christian communities. Others may acquiesce in it as the best under the circumstances, but in the case of the native Christian it is the best possible. It is not creditable to the sagacity of Anglo-Indian administrators that they were so long in perceiving this—if, indeed, they do yet perceive it. They were not content to hold aloof from missionary labor: they actively discouraged it, and, till quite recently, subjected converts to Christianity to heavy legal disabilities.

In Upper Burmah, as in Lower, there can be little doubt that it was annexation which stirred up the resistance that we have found it so difficult and costly to overcome. Had we been content to select from the crowd of possible pretenders some other king in place of Theebaw, and to govern the country through him, the people would, in all probability, have concurred willingly enough in the new order of things. But they were not prepared, without a struggle, to be blotted out from the roll of independent people, and the physical features of their country rendered guerilla warfare as easy to them as it was dangerous and difficult for us. The population of Upper Burmah is not more than two millions, scattered over a vast area covering about one hundred thousand square miles. The Irawaddy is a huge drainage channel, running from north to south through the centre of this area, and on both sides of it the country is covered with dense, primeval forest, and seamed and cut to pieces by the innumerable streams which pour into the main river from the mountain ranges on either hand. With the exception of Mandalay, which is fed almost wholly on supplies from British Burmah, there are no centres of population by the occupation of which an invading army could obtain control over a large surrounding district. The villages, thinly scattered here and there, are self-supporting. Roads, as might be expected, there are none, and, when once the rains have set in, all locomotion is well-nigh impossible. The low-lying lands are then under water, and the streams which rush down the sides of the hills are transformed into swollen cataracts, presenting, in the absence of bridges and boats, an insuperable barrier to the movements of troops.

In addition to these natural difficulties, a not less formidable one existed in the extreme simplicity of the social system in Upper Burmah. Among the Burmese there are no nobles, no large landowners, no people of hereditary influence. The constituents of government consisted of the King and his officials. But the authority of these latter depended wholly upon the good-will and pleasure of the sovereign. An official was no sooner degraded than he sank at once into the general mass of the people. The consequence was that when King Theebaw was deported to Rangoon, the entire machinery of administration not simply fell out of gear, but was, as it were, annihilated. An English force nominally held possession of the country, but, scattered as this was over a multitude of isolated posts, and incapable of rapid movement, the influence of the different detachments did not extend beyond the range of their rifles. A new civil administration on the British model was organized at Mandalay, but it was found impossible to place the officials in possession of the districts they were appointed to superintend. These districts were, in truth, merely arbitrary divisions drawn on the map. The "dacoits," as we were pleased to call those ranged against us, moved where they pleased, attacked our posts whenever they thought they could do so with impunity, harassed and intercepted our trains, and were, in fact, masters of the country through all the summer and rainy season of 1886. In the autumn of that year we had (inclusive of military police) a force of forty thousand men collected in Upper Burmah, and Sir Frederick Roberts, the commander-in-chief, repaired to Mandalay to take the supreme command. With these ample means at his disposal, he has experienced little difficulty in dispersing the wandering bands of marauders. It remains to be seen whether, when the rains set in, they will not again collect and recommence their harassing operations.

That the Indian Government is apprehensive of this is seen by the fact that they do not intend to reduce the large force at present garrisoning Upper Burmah. The army of occupation is to be maintained at its full strength during the summer, and there still remain one-half of the territories of King Theebaw whither our influence has as yet hardly penetrated. This portion is known as the Shan States. The Shans are a people more civilized, more determined, and much more capable of united action than the Burmese. The desire of the Indian Government is to avoid all conflict with them. They do not wish to curtail their independence, but merely to obtain from the chiefs of the different States a formal recognition of the British Government as the paramount power. It remains to be seen if they will succeed in this. If they do not, the most arduous portion of the conquest of Upper Burmah has still to be undertaken. The Shan chiefs will not withhold the acknowledgment of British suzerainty unless they are prompted to do so by the Chinese officials in Yunnan, and can rely upon their support. The action of the Chinese has always been the unknown factor when the conquest of Upper Burmah has come under discussion. The fear of what they might do restrained Lord Dalhousie from annexing it at the close of the war of 1853. Should their influence now be cast in the scale against us, the acquisition of Upper Burmah will prove to be that of a white elephant indeed.

R. D. Osborn, Lieutenant-Colonel.

DUMAS ON VICTOR HUGO.

Paris, April 7, 1887.

For a long time the special audience which attends the receptions of the members of the French Academy had heard no interesting "Discours"; in order to create such an interest it was necessary that some criticism should be mixed with the classical and perpetual eulogy—that there should be some gall on the edge of the cup filled with honey. Alexandre Dumas's only speech of this sort had been on the day when he was himself received. It has just now happened to him in his turn to receive a new member, a poet, M. Leconte de Lisle. It was generally known that Dumas did not much appreciate the new school of poetry which goes under the name of the school of the Parnassians, and of which Leconte de Lisle may be said to be the head. He emerged from obscurity only a few years ago, though he was known and most admired in a small circle. I remember well seeing him in the year 1848, after the Revolution. He was pointed out to me as a great poet, but I confess that his verses left me very cold. I felt a little like the man who, after having heard a celebrated pianist, said to somebody who observed how difficult it was to play in such a fashion: "Difficult! I wish it were impossible!" I was unjust. I have since read verses of Leconte de Lisle's which may take a place in a French anthology. His celebrity may be said to be owing to one of these pieces, called "Midi."

Alexandre Dumas tells us, in his speech, that Victor Hugo was walking one day in the island of Guernsey, during his exile. A young French visitor recited to him the verses—

"Midi, roi des étés, épandu sur la plaine,
Tombe en nappes d'argent des hauteurs du ciel bleu.
Tout se tait. L'air flamboie et brûle sans haleine;
La terre est assoupie en sa robe de feu."

"What are you saying?" inquired Victor Hugo, when he heard these verses which were not his own. The young visitor continued:

"L'étendue est immense et les champs n'ont point d'ombre;
Et la source est tarie où buvaient les troupeaux;
La lointaine forêt, dont la lisière est sombre,
Dort, là-bas, immobile en un pesant repos.
Seuls, les grands blés mûris, tels qu'une mer dorée,
Se déroulent au loin, dédaigneux du sommeil;
Pacifiques enfans de la terre sacrée,
Ils épulsent sans peur la coupe du soleil.
Parfois, comme un soupir de leur âme brûlante,
Du sein des épis lourds qui murmurent entre eux,
Une ondulation majestueuse et lente
S'éveille et va mourir à l'horizon poudreux."

I wish I could cite the whole piece. Victor Hugo recognized a brother poet, and his visitor recited to him all he knew by heart of Leconte de Lisle; told him who he was—how he had been born in the island of Réunion, in the Indian Ocean; how he lived in Paris, poor, independent, disdainful of money and even of glory. Victor Hugo took a volume which he had himself just published, wrote on it "Jungamus dextras," with his signature, and sent it to Leconte de Lisle. When he returned from his exile, and could again vote in the Academy, he gave persistently his solitary vote for him. Leconte de Lisle presented himself once, and had only the voice of Hugo, to whom he wrote on the same day: "You voted for me; I am elected." The election of Leconte de Lisle took place after the death of Victor Hugo, and may be considered as a last homage of the French Academy to our great poet.

Alexandre Dumas had to make a eulogy of Leconte de Lisle as well as of Victor Hugo. He rendered justice to the extraordinary powers of versification of the author of the trilogy of the 'Poèmes antiques; Poèmes barbares; Poèmes tragiques.' But he criticised the ethics of the Parnassian school. Leconte de Lisle is a Greek lost in our nineteenth century; he wrote in one of his prefaces:

"Since Homer, Æschylus, and Sophocles, who represent poetry in its vitality, in its fulness, and in its harmonic unity, barbarism has invaded the domain of the human mind. Artistically, the Roman world is on the level of the Dacians and the Sarmatians; the whole Christian cycle is barbarous. Dante, Shakspere, and Milton have only the force of their individual genius; their language, their concepticus are barbarous. The progress of sculpture was arrested with Phidias and

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with Lysippus. . . . What remains of the centuries which followed the reign of Greece? Only a few powerful individualities."

Leconte de Lisle is at the same time a Greek and a Buddhist; his form is Greek, his verses are sculptural; his thoughts are imbued with a sort of Buddhist sadness and melancholy. He is a pessimist, a pantheist. Man was everything to Greece, and the Greek gods themselves were human. Man occupies but a small place on the modern Parnassus.

"You have," said Dumas to Leconte de Lisle, "been impassible, brilliant, and unalterable, like an antique mirror of polished silver; you have merely been a reflex of all worlds, facts, ages, external things. You do not wish the poet to speak to us of the things of the soul, too intimate or too vulgar. No more emotion, no ideal, no sentiment, no faith, no heart beatings, no tears. Your skies are deserted, your earth is silent, and you suppress in it what is the life of the universe—love, eternal love. Material nature, science, philosophy are enough for you. Certainly the firmament, the sun and moon, the stars, the ocean, the forests, divinities, monsters, animals, are interesting; but I also am interesting—I, the man."

Dumas compares the human soul to the famous *Agnès* of Molière. The innocent pupil of *Arnolphe* tells her old tutor, who wishes her to love him:

"Tenez, tous vos discours ne me troublent point l'âme;
Horace, avec deux mots, en ferait plus que vous."

These "deux mots" are precisely what Leconte de Lisle and his school would suppress.

In his judgment on Victor Hugo, Alexandre Dumas develops qualities which have surprised his greatest admirers. We knew him to be a dramatist, and, in a certain way, a moralist; he has shown himself a true critic. Leconte de Lisle's eulogy of Victor Hugo did not contain a single word on the Romantic school, not a word on Lamartine, on Musset. Dumas reminded him of the existence of these two poets, and professed his great admiration for them. He recited the beautiful verses of Lamartine:

"O Père qu'adore mon père,
Toi qu'on ne nomme qu'à genoux," etc.

He recited also the famous passage of Musset's:

"Celui qui ne sait pas, durant les nuits brûlantes
Qui font pâlir d'amour l'étoile de Vénus,
Se lever en sursaut, sans raison, les pieds nus,
Marcher, prier, pleurer des larmes ruisselantes,
Le cœur plein de pitié pour des maux inconnus," etc.,

and, comparing these spiritual effusions with the prayer of Hugo, "Ma fille, va prier," etc., he showed that the three poets were brothers, that they drew their inspirations from the same source, that they were neither atheists nor pantheists, that they believed in the soul and its immortality.

Referring to the first poems of Victor Hugo, M. Leconte de Lisle had said in his speech that Hugo at one time thought himself a monarchist and a Catholic. Dumas answered that Victor did not think himself such—that he really was what he said then; and he examined by what process of mind he ceased to be a Catholic and a monarchist. This part of his speech is a curious psychological study. He shows Victor Hugo writing at the age of eighteen admirable odes, "Moïse sur le Nil," the "Vierges de Verdun," and continuing during nearly seventy years to write poem after poem, drama after drama, novel after novel. He had a manifest destiny: he was made to write, to receive and to transmit impressions, as the river is made to flow. "Victor Hugo had the essential character of the sublime folly which science tries in vain to classify in its pathology; he had a fixed idea, which was simply this—he wished to be the greatest poet of his time and of his country, and, when he advanced in life, to be the greatest man of all countrie and of all times." The unity which is not to be found in his acts or in his work will be found in his iron will. In his first volumes, in the "Odes et Ballades," in his earliest youth, he is never really in love: he knows neither Béranger's Lisette nor Lamartine's Elvire. He could say,

"Je suis maître de moi comme de l'univers."

When he begins to sing of love in his poems, you feel at once that he describes it and does not feel it. Dumas compares him to Jupiter, who sometimes condescended to take a human or an animal form. At the age of eighteen Hugo writes in one of his note-books: "I will be Chateaubriand, or I will be nothing." Chateaubriand had called him "un enfant sublime." At nineteen he writes, in the "Poète dans les révolutions,"

"La gloire est le but où j'aspire."

Dumas studies the development of the personality of Hugo, and says: "He could not tolerate being shut up in forms of government or religion that denied the right to say everything and the chance of being the first. He repudiated monarchy and Catholicism because, in these social and religious forms of the State, he would always and inevitably have had somebody over him. He would have accepted monarchy if he could have become king; he would have persevered in Catholicism if he could have become Pope, and united in himself the Pope and the Emperor, 'ces deux moitiés de Dieu,' as he says in 'Hernani.'"

But this is not all. Why did the figure of Napoleon have, for a long time, such an attraction for him? He had said that Homer was greater than Achilles; could he not, if he sang of Napoleon, become as great, perhaps greater? He first writes the famous "Ode à la colonne," the "Ode à l'arc de triomphe," etc. Later he compares his rock of Guernsey to the rock of St. Helena, and writes that posterity will place the thinkers above the actors, ideas above force. "Les traîneurs d'armées, Nemrod, Sennachérib, Cyrus, Ramsès, Alexandre, César, Bonaparte, tous ces immenses hommes farouches s'effacent." The poet remains alone, between heaven and earth, like Moses on Sinai, like Saint John at Patmos: "The poet is the priest; there is a pontiff on earth, the poet." Louis XIV. said "L'État, c'est moi." Hugo could have said: "Le génie, c'est moi." This popularity became a sort of religion after 1870; he was called "the master," "the father." When he died, a whole people followed his funeral. "Cæsar was put aside," said Dumas, "for his altar; a saint was dismissed to make room for him. [The Church of Saint-Geneviève, the patroness of Paris, was changed once more into a Pantheon.] A million of men accompanied the 'petit char des pauvres,' the last antithesis of the poet, with enormous cars covered with crowns."

Dumas reminded his auditors here that he had himself, with only six other men, followed Lamartine's coffin to the cemetery of Saint-Point; and that there were not more than thirty-three people, himself included, at Musset's funeral. He ended his brilliant discourse by a general description of Hugo's poetical work, comparing it to an immense edifice:

"I hear that many stones will fall from it; it is possible, it is true; but this edifice, which partakes of the Greek tempie, of the pagoda, of the mosque, of the feudal castle, of the Gothic cathedral, of the Oriental bazaar, of the palace of the Renaissance, round which have agglomerated peasants' huts and the houses of workmen and poor people—this edifice is so majestic, so picturesque, so singular, it is cut against the sky in such powerful masses, it has such gigantic vaults in which the wind is heard, it has such high walls flanked with such imposing towers, it has columns of such a pure marble, so many arcades of unexpected curves, . . . the bells of its enormous belfry, which ring the angelus or the tocsin, are made of such a noble metal, fill the air with such majestic waves, and wake such powerful and prolonged echoes in the vast plains and the immense forests which surround it and over which it towers, that you ask yourself at times if, as in the stories of the Middle Ages, God or devil has helped to build it."

Dumas has scandalized some by his criticism of Hugo, he has delighted others; he has astonished all by the unexpected development of his critical faculties. As a dramatist, he is always cutting and often pedantic and dry; as an orator, he has shown a height and a breadth of thought which have been a most agreeable surprise.

Correspondence.

THE CINCINNATI ELECTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In beginning the review of the week in your issue of the 7th instant, you said: "The recent municipal elections in Philadelphia, in Cincinnati, in Chicago, and Milwaukee are excellent illustrations of what can be done toward taking municipal government out of politics. . . ."

This statement is true, undoubtedly, of the three other cities, but I am sorry to have to say that you are mistaken about Cincinnati. Our municipal government is not likely to be taken out of politics until we have a newspaper which will not sacrifice our local interests on the altar of national politics. There was no revolt against either the Republican or Democratic Machine as such at our late election. The Republicans and Democrats each nominated, in the usual way, tickets no better than usual, and the palpable defects in these tickets were, in the usual fashion, whitewashed and denied by their party organs respectively. The labor organizations put forth an appalling ticket, for which their members were ordered to vote, and they did as they were bid. The remainder of our electors voted as they were directed by their respective party organizations and organs, except that probably a few reckless Democrats, realizing late in the day that it was impossible to elect their ticket, voted for the labor candidates. That is the whole story.

The result proved nothing, except that the labor organizations of this city contain more Democrats than Republicans. As for any organized breaking down of party lines, in aid of good government, no such thing has been known here since the days before the *Commercial* and *Gazette* threw overboard their occasional independence to issue a joint party organ for revenue only; and no such deliverance can come to us without the aid of an independent newspaper, which Cincinnati has not. C. B. Willey.

Cincinnati, April 10, 1887.

ARCHÆOLOGY IN THE MEDITERRANEAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a letter printed under the above title in the *Nation* of October 28, 1886, Mr. W. J. Stillman, while strongly recommending that excavations should be undertaken in southern Italy, discourages an archæological expedition to the Cyrenaica. Mr. Stillman's assertions are made so positively that we should hardly dare to dispute his conclusions, were it not that we have just made an exploration of these very regions with the object of reconnoitring the archæological field and settling the question of accessibility.

The Italian Government, we are told, is most cordially disposed to researches in archæology, and would no doubt materially aid the American Institute in its work. But in our case, at least, the Italian Government has done its utmost to prevent the examination of any site in Magna

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Græcia by excavation, even when an application was supported by the owners of the land concerned, and contained the provision that no part of the antiques discovered should be removed from the country.

The case in point was as follows: Digging was undertaken by us at the expense of the Institute, on the site of the great temple of Hera Lacinia, near Croton, last January. This work was begun with the full permission of the local authorities, not in the hope of treasure-trove, but solely for scientific ends. It was presently brought to a close through the direct intervention of the Italian Ministry of Public Instruction—fortunately not before the main objects in view had been attained. The official mandate was carried out with a rigor which could leave no doubt as to the temper of those in power. The objects discovered were taken from a house of a landowner situated within the sacred enclosure, flung into the trenches which had been dug to determine the extent of the edifice, and covered with earth. Among these objects were exceedingly important fragments of the gable sculptures of the temple which it had been our good fortune to bring to light. The vandalism of this act on the part of those at the head of archæology in Italy requires no comment.

In the Cyrenaica, on the other hand, although not "protected by a considerable body of troops," but careful to avoid injudicious pretensions to political significance, we made excursions, both by land and water, entirely unmolested. Representatives of four races showed an equal eagerness to facilitate archæological work, however unauthorized. Cyrene itself, the most remote of the five great cities of the country, lies only eight miles from the sea, and districts much further inland may be visited safely with the customary escort of a single Turkish zaptieh. Indeed, Christian natives generally dispense with such a guard altogether. Your correspondent is, however, quite right in stating that nothing serious can be undertaken without the consent of the Sublime Porte; for, contrary to his assumption, the Arabs are submissive to the Turkish rule throughout the entire vilayet. There is every reason to believe that the Porte would grant a concession for excavation, and the removal of objects thereby discovered, to representatives of a Power from which she has to fear no political designs. It is true, the material difficulties offered to investigation by the remoteness and uncultivated character of the country are immense, but these very circumstances have preserved to us, in the Cyrenaica, a field for archæological discovery incomparably richer than any other province of the ancient world.

JOSEPH THACHER CLARKE.
ALFRED EMERSON.

CRETE, March, 1887.

COMPOSITION OF THE NEW REICHSTAG.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A recent number of the *Berliner Tageblatt* contains a series of statistical statements regarding the composition of the new Reichstag which may, perhaps, be of interest to your readers. First as to the age of the members. The average of all parties taken together is, in 1887, fifty-three years five days, which is a little more than a year above the average of the last Reichstag, chosen in 1885. Of the leading parties, the German Liberals have relatively the fewest old men; 16 per cent. of them are above sixty years of age. On the other hand, 32 per cent. of the National Liberals belong in this category. Of the Centre, 70 per cent. are above fifty years of age. Particulars as to the Conservatives are not given.

In 1885 37 per cent. of the members belonged to the nobility; in 1887, 33 per cent. Of the Poles, 83.3 per cent. are of this class; of the Conservatives, 70 per cent.; of the Centre, 60.5 per cent. The "high nobility," that is, barons, etc., has 53.5 per cent.; the simple *von's*, 46.5 per cent. The Centre has twenty-six members of the former rank to four of the latter; among the eleven "noble" National Liberals is only one of the deeper blue; among the German Liberals is but a single member from the nobility.

Of greater interest for American readers will probably be the classification according to occupations. Here it is possible to make comparisons with our own legislatures, and striking differences are to be noted; as, for example, in the number of lawyers. So far, however, as legal training is concerned, it must be remarked that the "public officials" are to a large extent jurists. This is true, almost without exception, of bureau *chefs* in all departments, mayors, *Landräthe*, and so forth. German *Beamtenthum* is, of course, a more comprehensive term than our "civil service." Our nearest equivalent for the *Landrath* is, perhaps, the presiding officer of the board of supervisors of a county. If not originally appointed, he must at least be confirmed, by royal patent. As for mayors, the election by the city council is subject to royal confirmation, which may be refused on political grounds. The classification according to party and occupation is as follows:

Party.	Clergymen.	Landowners and Tenants.	Merchants and Manufacturers.	Physicians.	Public Officials.	Authors, Editors, etc.	Professors and Teachers.	Rentiers.	Lawyers.	Others.
Ger. Liberals...	—	5	8	—	5	4	3	2	2	2
Centre.....	13	34	12	1	20	2	4	7	3	2
Conservatives.	2	42	3	—	31	—	1	—	—	1
Nat'l Liberals..	—	22	30	4	24	1	6	4	5	—
Imperialists*...	—	19	7	—	12	—	1	1	—	—
Els.-Lothring'n	3	1	7	2	—	1	—	1	—	—
Soc. Democrats	—	—	8	—	—	2	1	—	—	—
Poles.....	—	10	1	—	—	—	—	1	—	—
Scattering.....	—	5	1	1	5	—	—	—	—	—
Totals.....	18	138	77	8	97	10	16	16	10	5

Under "landowners and tenants" is to be understood the interest of large landownership. Adding the seventeen possessors of great estates among "public officials," the "agrarian party" rises to 39.2 per cent. No comfort for American wheat-growers and live-stock men here.

The *Tageblatt* is an organ of the German Liberal party, which lost about half its strength in the recent elections. It classes the Centre, Conservatives, National Liberals, and Imperialists together, as being conservative in fact, and comprising 79.5 per cent. of the Reichstag. It would be a pity not to give its last sentence in the original: "Für Staatsmänner die hauptsächlich das Autoritätsprincip vertreten und den 'Unterthan' hübsch unten halten wollen, muss es eine Lust sein, ein Volk zu regieren, das solche Vertreter wählt." G. H. HARROWER.

HALLE, April 5, 1887.

*A wing of the Conservative party.

PSYCHIC PLAGIARISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: People have been talking a little, and writers, as usual, expatiating on the bold plagiarism lately perpetrated by H. Rider Haggard, in his recent Lytton + Ebers + Poe extravaganza entitled 'She.' But a far grosser case, it seems to me, is the following:

The Vanity and Insanity of Genius, by Kate Sanborn. New York: George J. Coombes. 1886.

Victor Hugo possibly exceeded all others when, in his poem "L'année Terrible," he paints with startling rhetoric the possibility that God may at last be found to have deceived us all along; that the moral cosmos may be reduced to a chaos, and man, the sport of destiny, expire in a ruined universe. And this is the central point, the idea which stands out for our strength and solace, that Hugo himself may be relied upon to chase and catch the recalcitrant Deity, and to overawe Him by the majesty of his personal appearance and the eloquence of his rebuke. "I shall go for him," is the first statement.

"J'irais, je le verrais et je le saiserais
Dans les cieux, comme on prend un loup," etc.
(Pages 42, 43.)

Essays Modern, by F. W. H. Myers. Second edition. London: Macmillan & Co. 1885.

In one of the last poems of *L'Année Terrible*, M. Hugo paints at great length and with startling rhetoric the possibility that God may at last be found to have deceived us all along—that "the moral cosmos may be reduced to a chaos," and man, the sport of destiny, expire in a ruined universe. What, then, is the central point of this poem? What is the idea which stands out for our strength or solace from this profusion of rhetoric and metaphor? It is—I blush with shame for M. Hugo in writing it down—it is that M. Hugo himself may be relied upon to chase and catch the recalcitrant Deity like a wolf in the forest, and to overawe Him by the majesty of his personal appearance and the eloquence of his rebuke.

"J'irais, je le verrais, et je le saiserais
Dans les cieux, comme on prend un loup," etc.
(Pages 160, 161.)

Now is not this a pretty dark showing against the obscure English essayist, Mr. Myers? To be sure his book was printed the year before Miss Sanborn's; but as it were ungallant to suppose a lady capable of such piracy, this trifling chronological fact only proves that Mr. Myers must be a more than ordinarily skilful plagiarist. And if by some occult theosophic trick of mind-reading or astral-bodying he can steal Miss Sanborn's thoughts and style of expression a year before she confides them to paper, what is to prevent this impudent Britisher doing the same to other inspired Americans? Indeed, if this goes unpunished, may we not expect to see Mr. Myers and kindred pirates printing Howells's new novels, or possibly—ye gods forefend!—even Joseph Cook's lectures, long before the luckless authors can evolve them? Protection, therefore, and national legislation tending thereto are unquestionably the imperative need of the hour.

HENRY W. AUSTIN.

MEDFIELD, MASS.

TRANSFORMATION OF SURNAMES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There are two instances of transformation of surnames that have come to my notice that seem worthy of a place in your already valuable collection. Both instances are of a change from the French, which seems to furnish the greater number of these cases. A Frenchman named *Le Sayre*, because his name was unpronounceable by Yankees, changed it to *Saul*, which came nearest to it of any name he could find in "the Big Book." Another family, named *L'Arrivée*, has for convenience sake become *Cummings!* J. W. SUTER.

WINCHESTER, MASS., April 14, 1887.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As the *Nation's* columns seem likely to be consulted hereafter as a record on this subject, you may think it worth while to print the following facts, although I sent them some years since to a Boston daily paper.

It is well known that families in the eastern part of Virginia who spell their name Enroughty are always spoken of as Darby. I was assured by a Virginian that the families in question were quite ignorant of the origin of this extraordinary state of things. Some years afterwards, the late Bishop of Gibraltar, who took much interest in such matters, confessed to me that it was the most remarkable case he had heard of, but added that he happened to be able to do something towards explaining it. Having married a lady from County Clare, he knew that some families named Enright or Enraght had gone thence to the United States some genera-

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tions since; that they belonged to the religious sect of Derbyites (*Darbyites*), and were often insulted in the streets by cries of "Old Darby."

Why Mr. Enroughty, when he grew tired of pronouncing his name differently from the rest of the world, persisted in spelling it in a way no one in the world would hit upon, is and must remain a mystery. A. D.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A correspondent in your issue of April 7 gives us a notice of the curious change of the Lithuanian-Jewish *Yitshak* (Isaac) into the English Hitchcox. The most curious part of it all is that Hitchcox, Hickok, and a dozen other like names all probably stand for Isaac. Ike, Hyke, and other similar country nicknames take the diminutive termination in *ock* and become finally transformed—past ready recognition. So Luke becomes Luckock, Jacob Jacox, Henry (Hank) Hancock, and so on.

Let me add here, if not strictly pertinent, that the third part of the 'New English Dictionary,' under the entry "Bêche de mer," follows the other dictionaries in saying that it literally means "sea-spade." True enough; but it is equally true, and more important, that it is simply a corruption of the Portuguese *bicho do mar*, or "sea-worm." C. W. G.

PHILADELPHIA, April 9, 1887.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & Co.'s forthcoming books include 'An Index to the Works of Shakspere,' containing some novel features, by Evangeline M. O'Connor; 'Proverbs from Plymouth Pulpit,' selections made with Mr. Beecher's sanction, and partly revised by him; 'Public Debts: An Essay in the Science of Finance,' by Prof. Henry C. Adams; 'Teaching English,' with detailed examples, by Alexander Bain; 'The Ventilation and Warming of School Buildings,' by Gilbert B. Morrison; 'Principles of Education Practically Applied,' by J. M. Greenwood; and 'Elementary Psychology and Education,' by James Baldwin.

Frederick Warne & Co. have nearly ready an illustrated volume, 'The Queen, her Early Life and Reign,' and a 'Victoria Birthday Book,' illustrated with portraits of the Royal Family.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. publish immediately 'The Blind Brother,' by Homer Greene.

Laughton, Macdonald & Co., Boston, are about to issue the fourth volume of Halkett and Laing's 'Dictionary of Anonymous and Pseudonymous Literature,' thus completing the work, whose authors no longer survive.

'The Order of Words in the Ancient Languages Compared with the Modern,' by Henri Weil, translated by Prof. C. W. Super, will be published in June by Ginn & Co.

D. C. Heath & Co. announce 'Notes on the Early Training of Children,' by Mrs. Frank Malleson.

'Organic Analysis: a Manual of the Descriptive and Analytical Chemistry of Certain Carbon Compounds in Common Use,' by Albert B. Prescott, is in the press of D. Van Nostrand.

The third and final volume (for this year) of the Dunlap Society is Mr. Laurence Hutton's admirably annotated 'Opening Addresses, written for and delivered at the first performances in many American theatres, from Boston to San Francisco, A. D. 1752-1880.' There are more than forty of these addresses, and they are of very varying literary value, but of most indubitable interest. The frontispiece of the collection is a facsimile, printed in blue, of a blue-china plate giving a view of the old Park Theatre.

Few words are needed for the praise of the new Riverside edition of Browning's Works in six volumes (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The two already issued include the Dramatic Lyrics and Dramatic Romances, with "Pauline," "Paracelsus," "Strafford," "Sordello," "Pippa Passes," etc. A fine portrait of the poet accompanies the first. The beautiful typography is condensed but clear, while the page form and the dull olive binding have been carefully and most satisfactorily thought out. At the end we shall have, we are assured, indexes of the contents and of first lines.

The same firm send us a third edition of Dr. Beardsley's 'Life and Correspondence of Samuel Johnson, D.D.,' a timely issue in view of the recent centennial of Columbia College, whose first President Dr. Johnson was.

A second edition has been reached of the 'Report of Commemorative Services with the Sermons and Addresses at the Seabury Centenary, 1883-1885' (James Pott & Co.), a volume of considerable ecclesiastical and historic interest.

Mr. Ernst E. Lemcke's 'Skat' has met with such success as to warrant a second edition, styled 'An Illustrated Grammar of Skat' (B. Westermann & Co.), revised and greatly enlarged, with rubricated title, illustrations, and even a bibliography of this German game of cards. A literary interest is imparted to the contents by a translation from Fritz Reuter's 'Ut mine Stromtid,' describing a Low-German card party—a "Boston party"—kept up "until the Rector, making a rough guess at the amount of money he had after all won, and finding that it was about 3 Thalers and 8 Groschen, and since of late luck had been somewhat against him, concluded to stop, rose and said that his feet were cold, putting his booty in his pocket."

'The Annual Statistician for 1887' (San Francisco: L. P. McCarty), contains, as usual, a number of new features for which room has been made by the omission of some things which it is not worth while to publish every year. Probably the most valuable of the new matter in this year's issue is the comparative statistics of the seventeen leading cities of the country. The tables under this head show the number of votes registered and polled in 1886, the number of voting precincts, the strength of the police and militia forces, the number of fire engines, etc., and of firemen, the loss by fires, the value and capacity of the gas and water works, the number and character of the street lights, the vital statistics, the number of murders, suicides, and executions, the length of street railways operated by each sort of motive power, the telegraph and telephone mileage, the number of saloons, the cost of licenses for the sale of intoxicating liquors, the school population and the amount expended for schools in 1886, the annual tax-rate, revenue, and expenditure, the public debt, and the names of the principal municipal officers. The annual publication of the latest attainable statistics, upon the subjects mentioned, for the principal cities of the country would add an extremely useful feature to the 'Statistician.' In future publications it will be possible, we trust, to submit the statistics, received as it is stated these were, from the city officials, to independent criticism by persons well posted upon the details of the municipal governments of the cities in which they live. In this way the danger of making serious errors, several of which we notice in the tables of this year's issue, will be reduced to a minimum.

'Isaac Bickerstaff,' from the *Tatler;* Landor's 'Gebir, and Count Julian'; and Lodge's 'Rosalind,' extend the series of little volumes in Henry Morley's "Cassell's National Library."

The *Westminster Review* succumbs to the spirit of the age and turns monthly, putting on a new and attractive cover, and making altogether a very handsome appearance (International News Co.). It now enlists in its regular service a number of writers on this side the water, beginning with our new Minister to Turkey, who describes the development of religious liberty in America. It will still preserve anonymity in general, but with provision of an "Independent Section" in which articles may or may not be signed, at the writers' option. It will labor consistently for the Liberal cause, and will not be a mere "platform" for chance-assorted essayists.

Among the Shelley scholars who are delivering sentence on the poet's conduct toward his first wife, in view of the Dowden biography, is Mr. J. A. Symonds, who writes to the April *Fortnightly* to the effect that he does not accept the defence that Shelley believed his wife unfaithful before he united himself with Mary Godwin. He thinks that Shelley formed the suspicion afterwards, and clung to it. Every one must have his say over "the blood eagle" of the Dead Prophet (if a reference to Tennyson is intelligible or pardonable in these later days), and we have had ours.

The *Manchester Quarterly* (John Heywood) is a publication of the Literary Club of that city, and is a very creditable one. Mr. Alexander Ireland, whose name is favorably known in this country, contributes a list of books for popular reading, in imitation of the lists of the one hundred best books so numerous of late, but his list comprises many hundreds. It shows distinctly individual prepossessions, but is on the whole a wise and conservative guide. The American department is not without its curiosities; we note "H. D. Howells," the novelist, and "Cable (Negro Life)"; Holmes's poetry. Aldrich, Higginson, and others of note are apparently unknown; the Authors' Club of this city suffers an eclipse well-nigh total; but not so Miss Wetherell and Henry Giles. In fact, the American list is a curious *mélange* of the established reputations and literary mistakes of the last age, with a scattering and uncertain selection of doubtful names of the present. The French and German departments are similarly highly classic, and, with regard to modern days, incomplete. An admirable comical skit on Browning's last volume, and one or two articles of literature and travel, are the only other noticeable features of the April number of the *Quarterly*.

The *American Magazine* (New York: Bush & Son), successor to the *Brooklyn Magazine*, opens with a varied list of contents of a popular character. Mr. W. H. Rideing attempts to do for the Boston literati the questionable service lately rendered by Mr. G. P. Lathrop to his brothers of the quill in this city; but the personal element is comparatively slight, while the un-Bohemian literary life of the young Bostonians is naturally the most striking thing about them in the eyes of an émigré from Union Square, as Mr. Rideing is. Mr. J. T. Trowbridge contributes some reminiscences of his early struggles in literature, in the course of which he describes old Major Noah in a very life-like way and much to his honor.

Our friends of the Audubon Society would do well to copy, from the April *Auk*, portions of Mr. W. E. D. Scott's paper on the "Bird Rookeries of Southern Florida." The writer had been over the ground six years before, when these rookeries were densely populated; but meanwhile the feather fashion for ladies' bonnets at the North had set in, and the result has been little short of extermination. "Birds were killed, and the plumes taken from the back, head, and breast, and the carcass thrown to the buzzards." One man "regularly employed from forty to sixty gunners, furnishing them with all supplies, and giving so much a plume or *flat skin*, for all the birds most desirable." The prices range from twenty cents to two dollars and a half.

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Some very interesting notes on Monachus tropicalis, a rare West Indian seal inhabiting the islands known as the Triangles, a hundred miles northwest of Yucatan, are given by Mr. Henry L. Ward in the March number of the *American Naturalist*.

In the *Canadian Entomologist* Dr. H. A. Hagen discusses with characteristic geniality a serious subject—a new library pest, bearing the very innocent name of Lepisma domestica, and which, unlike the Anobium, is very fond of starch. At the same time, Dr. Hagen cannot forbear to renew his warning against the white ant, which both devours the books and brings down the library roof when its attacks on the timbers of a building have gone far enough.

The management of the *American Journal of Philology* gives notice that only fifty-six complete sets remain in the publisher's hands. The price of the seven volumes (now $19) will be advanced after the present year. Applicants should address Prof. B. L. Gildersleeve, Baltimore.

There lies before us the first number of Dr. Daniel Sanders's monthly *Zeitschrift für Deutsche Sprache* (Hamburg: J. F. Richter). It gives every promise of being what our lexicographer contemplated, a veritable continuation of his 'Deutsches Stil-Musterbuch.' It opens, after an Introduction, with a reiteration of Dr. Sanders's agreement with Du Bois-Reymond's opinion, that Goethe in the fundamental qualities of style is in general no model; this being prefatory to a reprint, with great fulness of comment, of Goethe's "Der Sammler und die Seinigen"—which space alone prevented Dr. Sanders from inserting in his 'Stil-Musterbuch.' In this and in similar cases he intends to substitute German equivalents for the foreign words and phrases of the original, in order by means of foot-notes to emphasize the sufficiency of the vernacular. Prof. A. Ledebur has an article on the avoidance of foreign words in the industrial vocabulary. Another relates to the grammatical errors often committed by good writers.

The Massachusetts Historical Society has published an Index of the first series of its Proceedings, numbering twenty volumes and including the years 1791-1883. For its accuracy the fact that it has been prepared under the supervision of Mr. C. A. Cutter of the Boston Athenæum is a sufficient guarantee. The chief criticism which we have to make is, that in the endeavor to be exhaustive the compiler has overburdened the index with numerous entries of the most trivial importance, thereby unnecessarily increasing the size of the volume, with a proportionate diminution of the ease of reference to it.

The 'Catalogue of the York Gate Library' (London: Murray) is a sumptuous volume, richly illustrated, of the geographical collection of Mr. S. W. Silver. This library contains about 5,000 volumes, principally in English, and is especially strong in the collections of early voyages and works relating to the British colonies, but has comparatively few books about this country. The titles in the catalogue are arranged chronologically according to subjects, and references are made to all important papers in the various society publications. There are also indexes of subjects and authors, so that the catalogue, though not very scientifically constructed, will prove extremely useful as a bibliographical handbook of geography.

Mr. Bernard Quaritch appears to have a genuine grievance in that, having purchased of Col. Chester's executor his transcript of the Westminster marriage licenses, at a high figure, supposing them to be unique, the executor sells a copy at a reduced figure to the Harleian Society, thereby preventing a sale to the Society on Mr. Quaritch's part, and producing a rival publication.

A new title has been added to Bohn's Classical Library, in a translation in two volumes of Pausanias's Description of Greece, by Arthur Richard Shilleto of Cambridge (Scribner). It is surprising, when one looks over the list of translations in this library, to see how meagre and inadequate it is—apart from the quality of the translations, which, in the earlier volumes, has in many cases ranked very low. The appearance of the present work, which may be assumed to represent the present high standard of Cambridge scholarship, leads us to hope that others of the less known, but none the less indispensable, authors—as Polybius, Dio Cassius, the *Scriptores rei rusticæ* and *historiæ Augustæ*—will be in time added. It would have been too much to expect a commentary on Pausanias (a work of enormous labor), but it seems a pity that a moderate number of critical notes were not added; enough at least to show the student in what instances the translator has abandoned the Teubner text and adopted "a reading that seemed preferable from any other source."

A 'Bibliothèque de Carabas' is announced in London by Mr. David Nutt (New York: Scribner & Welford), of which the first volume is to be the 'Marriage of Cupid and Psyche,' from the 'Golden Ass' of Apuleius, Englished by William Adlington (1556), and now reëdited by Mr. Andrew Lang, with a discourse on the fable by the editor, with two full-page plates and various head and tail-pieces, and with introductory verses by Mr. Frederick Locker, Mr. W. H. Pollock, and Mr. Lang himself. The ordinary edition is limited to 550 copies, and there will be also sixty large-paper copies.

In 1879 M. Victor Fournel published a solid and abundantly illustrated volume on 'Les Rues du Vieux Paris' (Paris: Firmin-Didot & Cie.); and he has now issued another book closely akin to this in subject and style, 'Le Vieux Paris: Fêtes, jeux et spectacles' (Tours: Alfred Mame et fils; New York: F. W. Christern). In the fourteen well-illustrated chapters of this substantial work M. Fournel considers the mysteries, fairs, minor theatres, puppet-shows, magicians, acrobats, "freaks," trained animals, and "side-shows" of all sorts, from the Middle Ages to the present time; and in the course of his entertaining rambles he sheds not a little light on many points of minor interest in the history of the French theatre.

A publication interesting to book-lovers, and especially to those who are trying to collect the works of what has been called *la génération de 1830*, is the 'Causeries d'un ami des livres' (Paris: Édouard Rouveyre). Nine numbers have already appeared, and the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth are promised for next September. It is an anonymous publication, but it is whispered that it is the work of M. Léopold Derome, a frequent contributor to *Le Livre*. The first five numbers are devoted to 'Les Éditions originales des Romantiques,' poets, prose writers, the *petits Romantiques*, the Romantic sects and *La Bohême*, the works of Heine and of Gérard de Nerval. The sixth number is entitled 'Services rendus par Charles Nodier à la conservation des livres,' and the seventh, 'Les Ennemis des livres.' In the eighth the writer discourses very pleasantly about Sainte-Beuve, the man, the apostle of Romanticism, the book-lover. But he cannot forgive him his abjuration of his old literary creed, any more than he can pardon his unchristian burial or that of Victor Hugo. The last number is about the historians of the Romantic school, Mérimée and Augustin Thierry. To be logical, M. Derome would have to include Henri Martin and Michelet, but probably he would think that their abjuration of what he calls "la forme laïque du catholicisme" was of too serious a nature to entitle them to be classed among the true *Romantiques*.

Hetzel-Quantin (New York: Christern) have published a neat volume, 'L'Œuvre de Victor Hugo.' The first thought that occurs on seeing this title is that it may be the same book that was published just at the time of Hugo's death, under the title 'L'Œuvre complète de Victor Hugo,' but a careful examination shows that this is not the case. Both contain extracts, but the later ones differ materially from the first, and are more numerous. The new volume, by the care with which the selections are made, deserves its name of "Édition des Écoles." Victor Hugo has everything to gain by being presented in extracts skilfully chosen. The present collection shows him at his best, and gives an excellent idea of the broadness and variety of his work, both in prose and verse.

The Report of the Chief Procurator of the Synod upon the Orthodox (Russian) faith, for 1884, has just been published, and furnishes some curious facts. In the Western Governments and Poland, the official religion of the inhabitants is Orthodox, while their real faith is Catholic. Certain privileges were conferred on the Raskolniki (the upholders of the ancient unrevised versions of religious works), by the law of May 3, 1883, and this was accepted as a sign that the authorities were beginning to recognize the legality of the sect. The leaders expect to see the Raskolniki placed on an equality with the State Church before long, and this has emboldened them in some quarters to oppress the members of the authorized faith, while complaining, in many instances, that they are still grievously oppressed. It is not stated in just what their persecution of Orthodox believers consists, but it is principally directed against converts from the sect to the established faith. In consequence, there has arisen a feeling which is unconditionally opposed to every grant of privileges to this overbearing sect.

Applications for the twenty annual scholarships offered by the Johns Hopkins University (worth $500 each, plus free tuition) should be addressed to the *President of the Johns Hopkins University—Application for Fellowship;* and they must reach the Registrar's office not later than nine o'clock, Monday, May 2, 1887. For the return of manuscripts the requisite postage should be sent. Every candidate is expected to submit his college diploma or other certificate of proficiency from the institution where he has been taught, with recommendations from those who are qualified to speak of his character and attainments. He must also submit, orally or in writing, such evidence of his past success in study and of his plans for the future, together with such examples of his literary or scientific work, as will enable the professors to judge of his fitness for the post.

—The Boston Museum of Fine Arts has published a descriptive catalogue of the casts from Greek and Roman sculpture which belong to the Museum—a small collection, but well chosen and fairly well lighted and shown. Mr. Edward Robinson, the newly appointed curator of classical antiquities, is one of the younger group of archæologists who unite German thoroughness to a wide sympathy for artistic expression of many kinds, which is not so peculiarly German. Much is to be expected of our museums if they are put into such hands, as they will be little by little. We accept with gladness this catalogue and manual as a first-fruit of the season to come. It is a book to study before visiting the collection, and to study more carefully afterwards—a really serious inquiry into the characteristics of each work of sculpture, with a history of it and a memorandum of the restorations that it has un-

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dergone. All of this may be done, however, without other originality than that of hard and well-directed work—at least, it is only now and then that a point can be said to be newly made; and therefore we hasten to say that the tone of criticism seems to be just and discriminating throughout. To judge of the quality of this handbook, read the notices of the Hermes of the Belvedere and the Hermes of Andros, Nos. 91 and 92. The student of these statues needs the help of the critic, and the needed help is given here in excellent form. Everywhere in the book perfunctory remarks are extremely rare, and little is said that could be spared. There is an index which seems a good one, though it would be well to have the sculptures mentioned under the places of discovery or places of exhibition; thus, the Apollo (?) of Thera we should like to find under Thera, in case we don't believe it an Apollo and have looked in vain under Athlete, Grave-statue, Tomb-statue, and the like. So of the above-mentioned Belvedere Hermes: travellers of a few years ago knew it as the Belvedere *Antinous*, absurd as it seems to us now. A mention of it under Belvedere of the Vatican would help such antiquated persons.

—In the goodly brotherhood of American public libraries there are "poor relations" who can hardly maintain the struggle for existence, and again well-housed, well-endowed institutions, entertaining the most benevolent feelings towards the weaker kind. The two classes are sharply discriminated in the rural parts of New England according as the movement to found a library has been more or less spontaneous and feeble, or some wealthy resident or native of the town has suddenly bestowed upon it quite its most beautiful and imposing building, perhaps designed by Richardson, with a sufficient fund to insure its comfortable support and growth. To the latter class belongs the Nevins Memorial Library of Methuen, Mass., an institution founded by the late David Nevins—or, rather, contemplated by him, and actually built and endowed by his widow and sons. They have not only provided a building, after designs by Mr. S. J. F. Thayer, worthy to rank with the best of the minor public libraries, and filled it with 10,000 volumes, but have borne the expense of a catalogue which can hardly have an equal in its degree. This work, in two imperial octavo volumes of about 1,000 pages, with broad margins and open and elegant typography, shows a hand practised in the best modern methods of cataloguing, and is a liberal model of the art. It has been compiled by Miss Harriet Howe Ames, who, moreover, was intrusted with the selection of the books themselves and the entire organization of the library. In all these particulars she shows a very exceptional intelligence and a painstaking and punctilious habit. The literal accuracy of the entries is noticeable throughout, and we have discovered no greater slip than "1630-80" (under Boston Memorial History) for 1630-1880. The catalogue is by author, subject, and class; and headings like Biography, Dictionary, France, Genealogy, Japan, Slavery, etc., reveal the good judgment which has gone to the stocking of the library. What is remarkable is that (so far as we have observed) not a single work wholly in a foreign language is embraced in the collection. From Homer to Dante, from Cæsar to Napoleon, from Horace to Heine, all the classics represented are in translation. Finally, Miss Ames furnishes numerous notes by way of additional cross-reference and as guides to students. It is safe to say that no public library was ever better launched than that over which she presides.

—John Harvard's much-married mother was a Rogers, belonging to one of the first families of Stratford-on-Avon. Her sister Rose furnished a clue to her discovery by Mr. Henry F. Waters; and it was while he was endeavoring to find mention of Rose herself that he went somewhat deeply into the Rogers family, among the Essex wills, and made some notable advances in tracing the connection between the family of the Rev. Nathaniel Rogers of Ipswich, Mass, and their ancestors in the old country. It is well known that the late Col. Chester was drawn into his masterful pursuit of genealogy by a desire to establish his own relationship with John Rogers, the martyr. He succeeded in destroying the common belief in a direct descent from this celebrity on the part of the New England Rogerses, but he in vain sought to go beyond John Rogers, a famous minister of Dedham, England, and father of the above-mentioned Nathaniel. Mr. Waters (and it is a high tribute to his skill) has found both the father and the grandfather of John of Dedham, planting the family in Chelmsford, Essex, twenty-nine miles from London, where he can but think that "the oldest and most noticeable house" in Mulsham (an adjacent hamlet) may be the birthplace of the said John. He died in 1636, and for a hundred years at least the family had been on the spot, as the church register shows. Two elegies on this "minister of god his word, late deceased," were found by Mr. Waters in the British Museum, and are printed with a portion of the Rogers researches in the April number of the *New-England Historical and Genealogical Register*. We have not space for further details, but may quote Mr. Waters's disposition to think that the New England family may yet establish a kinship with the martyr Rogers through a common ancestor, and that the ancestry of John Harvard's mother may also be traced back to the same source. His researches in this direction are by no means at an end, and the uncommon interest in them makes timely Mr. John T. Hassam's reminder, in the *Register*, "of the necessity of establishing a permanent fund, by means of which we can carry on these investigations on a grander scale than ever before, and with proportionately greater results."

—Besides Mr. Waters's "Gleanings," the *Register* contains, with a portrait, a biographical sketch of the late Frederic Kidder, a prolific historian and genealogist, and disinterested friend of the *Register* in its trial hours. There is also a fresh presentation of the lineage of Abraham Lincoln, by Samuel Shackford of Chicago. The chain that leads up to Samuel Lincoln of Hingham, Mass., is nearly complete, but the New Jersey and Massachusetts Lincolns still need to be indisputably connected, and strong probability, rather than certainty, must be alleged of the pedigree as it now stands. Certain it is that the New Jersey ancestors of the emancipator passed on into Virginia, into North Carolina, and finally into Kentucky. On page 222 of the *Register* mention is made of the forthcoming volume of the Collections of the Virginia Historical Society, with its preface by Mr. Robert A. Brock, consisting of "a carefully prepared and valuable history of the African slave trade, with an account of slavery in Virginia, into which colony, as he shows, its introduction was incidental, and its extension circumstantial and largely involuntary."

—*Macmillan's* for April is distinguished by Tennyson's Jubilee "Carmen Sæculare," a poem which has a singularly monumental character. In the ordinary run of literature which is all that the remainder of the number can boast of, Mr. George Saintsbury's paper on Hazlitt is very well worth reading. It is undoubtedly a fact that Hazlitt has met with a speedy oblivion that would be scarcely credible to the literary generation that knew him. A good many elderly people still believe in him, and Mr. Saintsbury, speaking as a qualified professional critic, would evidently be pleased if he could bring about a "revival" of his vogue. What he has to say is in a high degree interesting, and he shows a "sweet and commendable" nature in letting the old literary grudges all go, and forgiving the irascible and erotic creature with the fulness of complete absolution. But, in the way of mere criticism, we incline to think he goes further than a sound method warrants in one respect. He finds in Hazlitt a mixture, a kind of primeval and generative chaos, of all styles, out of which, unfortunately, Hazlitt himself brought no single orderly, fixed style to be his own; but he answers Jeffrey's famous question plumply by saying that Macaulay got his style from Hazlitt, and adds, also, that "Hazlitt served as a model to Thackeray, to Dickens, and to many not merely of the most popular, but of the greatest writers of the middle of the century. Indeed, in the 'Spirit of the Age' there are distinct anticipations of Carlyle." And again, "No one who reads the essay on Nicolas Poussin will fail to add Mr. Ruskin to Hazlitt's fair herd of literary children." From all of which substantially we dissent, as an abuse of putative fatherhood in the matter of style, which could be taken seriously only if it were meant humorously. In such remarks as these, coming from men of the professional eminence of Mr. Saintsbury, the unreality which seems more or less to pervade literary criticism at all times becomes painfully apparent.

—Émile Zola periodically brings his name before the Paris public, and when he has done so we may be sure that he is about to issue a new volume of his series of the "Rougon-Macquart." In this case the coming book will be called 'La Terre,' and in it peasant life will be depicted, the action taking place on the confines of La Beauce and La Perche. Previous to its publication, however, M. Zola has been creating quite a stir by his controversy with the dramatic critics in regard to the play taken from 'Le Ventre de Paris.' This goes under the name of M. William Busnach, who has before now played the part of dramatic arranger for the novelist. But M. Zola is even more sensitive to criticism upon his *collaborateur* than he would be to attacks upon his own work, or at least he feels more at liberty to be violent in defence of another than of himself. That he can be violent he has shown once more by the general slashing he has inflicted upon those who disapproved of the new drama. M. Francisque Sarcey of the *Temps* is the critic of whom he speaks the most contemptuously. But M. Sarcey is not to be crushed thus, as he has shown in his *feuilleton* headed "Réponse à M. Émile Zola." In this, with delightful good humor, he answers the "Parisien de Médan qui surgit tout rouge de dépit et crie comme si c'était lui-même que l'on eût écorché." Justice is playfully done to the symbolical *galantine*, to the symphonic oppositions of fat and lean in the *charcuterie* of Quenu. A few of the novelist's own slips are maliciously referred to, as when he speaks of catching "little *pink* shrimps"; which are pink only in the seas "where the lobster is clothed in the purple of the cardinals," adds M. Sarcey. He concludes by seriously advising him to imitate the example of M. Alphonse Daudet, and to give to the world a play wholly written by himself.

—After the publication of 'La Terre,' M. Zola sees five more novels to complete the series he has undertaken. In one, of which a few chapters in 'L'Œuvre' gave a foretaste, he will study the railroad world; in another, the Bourse and journalism in the last days of the Second Empire; in a third, military life, the defeat at Sedan, and the Paris Commune. Another will probably be called 'Le Docteur Pascal.' In this the author

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will sum up his scientific conclusions about atavism. Pascal Rougon, who figures in what to many is Zola's best novel, 'La Faute de l'abbé Mouret,' is the only wholly genial character he has created. It was formerly his intention to close the series of the "Rougon-Macquart" with the volume of which Pascal was to be the principal figure, but now there floats in his mind a final work, which is to bring together all the scattered and unfinished threads—and there are many in the gigantic series, which will then number twenty volumes.

ROBERT E. LEE.—II.

Memoirs of Robert E. Lee. His Military and Personal History, etc. By A. L. Long, formerly military secretary to Gen. Lee, etc. New York: J. M. Stoddart & Co. 1887.

WE have seen that Lee regarded as an accomplished fact the revolution which culminated in the organization of a Confederate States Government. The history of the world gave encouragement to the belief that the chances were largely in favor of the finality of the disruption of the Union. He found himself a citizen under a Government *de facto*, for the establishment of which he felt no personal responsibility; and to serve it as a soldier in the war which was already begun seemed only the natural sequence of relations and duties which he had already acknowledged. There was no distinguishable line between the defence of Virginia and that of the Confederate States of which she had become a part. This did not imply any change of opinion as to the character of secession or the folly of the revolution. That was all in the past; the flagrant war was the present fact. He was a soldier by profession, and the community from whose fate he could not find it in his heart to separate himself demanded his services. Candid men of all sorts of opinions may agree that it was quite natural to decide so, and may well decline to push casuistry further. We dwell upon it because we think it the key to Lee's subsequent conduct, which, viewed in this way, is reasonably consistent throughout.

One may look in vain for any indication in Lee's military orders and correspondence of a change in his political sentiments or convictions. We shall be surprised if his private letters or writings disclose any, except as the combative spirit grows in time of war by its own exercise. This was plainly seen on both sides, and we do not lack brilliant examples, on the national side, of men who began by solving with difficulty the question whether they would take arms at all, and ended by being zealous, if not radical, supporters of the broadest national claims.

Gen. Long tells how Lee met the suggestion of a prominent Georgian, that the people would make him Davis's successor if the Confederacy should become independent. "'Never, sir,' he replied, with a firm dignity that belonged only to Lee; 'that I will never permit. . . . I shall not do the people the injustice to accept high civil office with whose questions it has not been my business to become familiar.'" This is spoken of as proof of self-abnegation and modesty. It seems to us rather an indication of a continued unwillingness to identify himself with the political doctrines of secession. He was too large a man to doubt his own capacity for executive duties in a time of peace, and his form of expression looks to us only as a modest and allowable waiver of political discussion and of political committal.

When his task as a soldier was over, and he had redeemed to the full his pledge to devote himself to the defence of his home, his conduct was still consistent with the view we have taken. The first bitterness of surrender was intense. The expectation of severity from the successful power was natural. He thought he was likely to realize the foreboding he had expressed before the war began, that his choice involved a sharing of "the miseries of my people." Yet nothing can be clearer than that he accepted the result without reserve. He utters no sentimental lamentations over the "lost cause" as such. No original secessionist had done so much to make it a success, and had it succeeded there can be no doubt that his military skill would have been the cornerstone of Confederate independence. His attitude was one which would have enabled him to say (if he had permitted himself to say anything on the subject), "Your experiment of revolution has failed, and to the extent of my powers I have given you the means of making the test of its wisdom complete. I share the ruin which I advised you not to risk. It is no scheme or theory of mine that has thus collapsed." What he in fact said was, "I think it the duty of every citizen, in the present condition of the country, to do all in his power to aid in the restoration of peace and harmony, and in no way to oppose the policy of the State or general Government directed to that object." He wrote this to the Trustees of Washington College when suggesting doubts as to the propriety of his becoming the President of the College, because the appointment might be in the way of the peace and harmony he desired, on account of his being "an object of censure to a portion of the country." It is a pleasant duty to record the opinion that his administration of the College proved a most powerful help in launching the new South upon the peaceful and loyal course which promises to make its prosperity go hand in hand with the revival of a truly national spirit. To Gov. Letcher he wrote: "The interests of the State are therefore the same as those of the United States. Its prosperity will rise or fall with the welfare of the country. The duty of its citizens, then, appears to me too plain to admit of doubt. All should unite in honest efforts to obliterate the effects of war and to restore the blessings of peace."

The honest and hearty nature of this renewed allegiance cannot be doubted. Lee's convictions concerning the unity of the nation under the Constitution, as he professed them before the war, were not loosely held, but were the matured beliefs of an able man. When, therefore, the attempted revolution had failed, we know that the consistency of his intellect was such that he must have regarded the outcome as the proof of the truth of his original opinions, strengthened by the demonstrative evidence the war itself furnished of the cohesive power in the nation that could resist such a convulsion. It certainly was a noble trait in his character that he seems never to have permitted himself to argue in his own justification, or to deny his share of responsibility with other Southern leaders. As he had accepted the fate of Virginia when it dragged him away from his chosen career and ran counter to his judgment of both the right and the expedient, so he accepted without complaint the losses and the griefs the war had brought to all those with whom he had cast in his lot. He seems to have put the past utterly behind him, and to have made it his cardinal principle for the remainder of his life to think only of the duty of the present hour. If he had erred in not making his Constitutional Unionism more aggressive and more pronounced, he accepted with dignity and meekness the penalty of the mistake, and devoted himself to showing a new generation the way to a hopeful future based upon a broader patriotism.

We have preferred to dwell upon these phases of the personal character of Lee because they have been less discussed than his military career. His rank as a soldier is by common consent a very high one. There is still room for difference of opinion on the question of preëminence over all contemporaries, which is so often claimed for him. So many elements enter into the discussion of the causes of military success or failure that it will be premature to attempt an authoritative decision of the relative rank and abilities of leading officers, on either side, before we are quite sure we have all the light that history can give us. We are only beginning to get access to the official records and the correspondence which will show the inner working of causes and events during the rebellion. Some things, however, in regard to Lee may be taken to be firmly settled. His training as an engineer did not take from him that power of active initiative and prompt aggression in field campaigning which is so often denied to the engineer officer. He could adopt a carefully defensive policy; but he could also drop it suddenly to inflict punishment upon his opponent if the opportunity were given. He could vary his methods according to the known characteristics of his adversary? It must also be admitted that, with an inferiority in numerical force, he was victorious in the greater number of the battles in which he was engaged before the last campaign of the war. He could manœuvre a large army with rapidity, and did not seem to be overweighted by the responsibility of a great command. These things justify his claim to be considered a great soldier, while they leave room for the belief that several commanders were developed by the war for whom a similar claim could be made.

It is in itself probable that had he remained in the United States Army he would have followed Scott in its chief command. Whether the overtures to him made by Mr. Blair were fully authorized by President Lincoln may be doubtful; but whether they were or not, his recognized standing was such that he would, no doubt, have been put in command of the army at Washington had he stayed in the service, and the rest would have followed in natural course. Indeed, his reputation insured him high employment in whichever army he might choose; and if the loss or gain of position was matter of temptation, the temptations might be said to be, in that respect, pretty well balanced. We prefer to believe (and the evidence strongly sustains this view) that he felt a deep and sincere grief at the troubles that had come upon his country, and yielded to family ties and to local and personal influences, which made it seem preferable to suffer any evils with his own family and community rather than war upon them even if he thought them wrong. That it would be regarded a great prize by Mr. Davis and the active secessionists to secure his adhesion, needs no telling. That they would distrust his earnestness in their cause from his known opinions, is equally plain. They were doubtless glad to consent to take his military service under his own theory that he was defending Virginia, without asking him to approve their doctrines or to share the intensity of their feelings. His high sense of military honor and duty when once he had committed himself was the guaranty for the faithfulness of his devotion, and they soon learned to lean upon him with unquestioning trust. We get no trace of even a discussion with him of his political opinions, and such debate would seem to have been deliberately tabooed by him.

We are impressed with the belief that Lee's life was a deeply pathetic one, and that he was conscious, through all this part of it, of being in a false position. Love of home, of family, of friends had come in conflict with his love of country. The leaven of "State-rights" doctrine had worked so far as to make the calls of the State and of the nation neutralize each other, so that private and local affections turned the balance,

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He felt that his friends and neighbors were on a wrong path, yet could not separate himself from them. In the clash of arms he could forget other thoughts, and in the intense activity of military life he could find something like exhilaration; but when it was over, and the cause to which he had given his sword had failed, he must have looked back upon it as a tragedy "wondrous pitiful," in which all that he held dearest had been staked and, apparently, lost, while he could not have even the consolation of the enthusiast in believing that the cause itself was noble and worthy of the sacrifice.

OLD ENGLISH LETTER FOUNDRIES.

A History of the Old English Letter Foundries, with Notes, Historical and Bibliographical, on the Rise and Progress of English Typography. By Talbot Baines Reed. London: Elliot Stock; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1887.

THIS book is welcome. Few bookish men pretend to accurate knowledge of English types or type-founders. The candid collector will admit that he knows more of the outer than of the inner dress of a book. He may, and probably will, point out the differences between the tooling of books of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, but his confidence will desert him should he attempt to define the age or the origin of a peculiar type. For this he has good excuse. English bibliographers of the last century, and even of the last generation, have been unsafe guides when they attempted to describe types. Assuming to talk authoritatively about matters they did not understand, they have warranted their readers in the exercise of similar rashness and similar blunders. Benjamin Franklin, always quick to detect pretence, has told an amusing story of his stultification of an English connoisseur who depreciated Caslon's types, which he professed to admire, in the belief that he was censuring the types of Baskerville. All Franklin had done was to produce indirectly the impression that the Caslon types were Baskerville types. The letter, too long to be quoted, may be found in Bigelow's edition of his Autobiography (Philadelphia, 1874, i, p. 413).

Since 1860 the teachings of the old school of bibliographers (of whom Dibdin may be noted as the last and the worst exemplar) have been brought to naught. William Blades began the work of reclassification admirably with his critical examination of the types of Caxton. The lamented Henry Bradshaw of Cambridge, although he wrote but little, did excellent service in enforcing the lesson that exact knowledge of types cannot be had from the acceptance of opinions, gossip, and tradition; that it must be had only from the study and comparison of the books and the methods of early printers. Mr. Hessels of Cambridge, and Dr. van der Linde of Wiesbaden, also deserve thankful mention for their efforts in destroying the typographical fables that have been palmed off as good history. Now comes Mr. Reed with the results of his researches in the history of English type-making in the shape of a stout quarto of nearly four hundred pages. In this book there is, of course, a good deal that is old and well known, but there is also much that is entirely new and of value to librarians and typographers. His list of authorities consulted shows that he is thoroughly versed in the literature of the subject, but his more important contributions have been derived from study and comparison of the specimen sheets and books of early type-founders, and the reading of the records of the Stationers' Company of London. We do not find in his preface any mention of his personal relation to type-founding, but his knowledge of types is plainly not that of an amateur or a man of letters: he must have known and handled types from boyhood.

His introductory chapter on the types and type-founding of the first printers is a careful, judicial summary of the little exact information we have on this subject. He leans to the opinion of Blades that there was in the beginning a scientific and an unscientific system of typography, and that Caxton was a pupil of the latter school, which was of Flemish origin. Caxton's pupils, De Worde and Pynson, were of French birth or descent, and their preference was for French forms of black letter and for the scientific system of type-founding. The types used by the early English printers may have been cast in England, but the designing of the forms and the cutting of the models were done abroad, most largely at Rouen and Paris, in which cities devotional books in English were largely printed for the English market. The "learned types," the Greeks, Hebrews, and Orientals, of the Oxford University Press were cut abroad. John Day (in business from 1546 to 1584) seems to have been the only English printer of the sixteenth century who was really active in having made for his office new forms of types. How much of this work was done by English, and how much by foreign, workmen, Mr. Reed cannot tell us. The books of the period are evidence of the slenderest ability in engraving. Day's woodcuts, vigorous in design, are rudely cut; the "bloomer" initials of the Oxford University Press and the "pierced" initials of many English printers are of matchless ugliness. Early English printers were dependent on foreign workmen. They had no good reputation abroad either as founders or printers.

Mr. Reed's chapter on the state control of English letter-founding is excellent, but disappointingly brief. In 1483 England allowed free trade in types and books, and printing flourished, although types and books in English were made abroad. Repression began in 1556, when a charter to the Stationers' Company was granted, and patents and monopolies were parcelled out, which did not have the good effect desired. Christopher Barker complained that in 1582 there were twenty-two printing-houses in London. He thought eight or ten enough for the entire kingdom. This restrictive policy culminated in the decree of 1637 made by the Star Chamber. The number of printers and type-founders, of presses and apprentices, was exactly prescribed. It was made unlawful to own a press or types or do any kind of printing without license. This is not the place to show the political consequences of that unwise legislation, but we may pertinently show how great damage it did to typography. Mr. Reed says that there followed—

> "a distinct degeneration in the quality of the typographical work executed. A privileged printer, sure of his monopoly and safe from competition, would have little or no inducement to execute his work at more cost or pains than was necessary. Old type would do as well as new, and bad type as well as good. Free trade and open competition were the great evils to be dreaded, because free trade and open competition would demand the best paper and type and workmanship. The typography of the entire Stuart period is a disgrace to English art. Fine printing was an art unknown; and only a few works like Walton's *Polyglot*, which were produced in an atmosphere untainted by mercenary considerations, stand out to redeem the period from unqualified reproach.
>
> "On the other hand, the removal of the restrictions was the signal for a revival which may be traced in almost every printed work of the early eighteenth century. In the absence of any great English type-founder, the best Dutch types came freely into the English market. Books came to be legible, paper became white, ink black, and presswork respectable" (p. 136).

It does not appear that English skill in type-founding was much greater at the close of the seventeenth century. English printers were dependent on other countries not only for styles of types, but for the very types themselves.

Joseph Moxon, the first English type-founder of note (1659–1683), writes enthusiastically of the beauty of Dutch types, which were then the admiration of English readers. Moxon cast imitations not with much success. Moxon's successors had to go to Holland to buy the materials for making types. Punches (the original letters on steel) were not to be had, for the "sly and jealous" Dutch would not sell them. When the matrices had been bought of Van Dijk or Athias, the English founder was reasonably sure of good types, but the matrices bought of inferior cutters are of sorry workmanship. We have had a recent revival of these shabby types made by unskilled Dutch workmen. Used for the most part in the seventeenth century by printers of ha'-penny ballads, they are now paraded in recent imitations of old English typography as characteristic specimens of early English letter. No really good form of roman or italic letter was cut in England before the eighteenth century. The so-called English types of earlier periods are really of French or Dutch design.

William Caslon of London was the first English founder whose types were respectfully mentioned by foreign typographers. They still deserve all the praise they then received. Nichols says of them that "for clearness and uniformity, for the use of the reader and student, it is doubtful whether it [the Caslon form] has been exceeded by any subsequent production." And this must have been the opinion of Whittingham of the Chiswick Press, when in 1843 he persuaded Caslon (fourth of the name) to get the old Caslon matrices out of the vault and make new types of the discarded and almost forgotten face of what we now call Old Style. Caslon may properly be regarded as the founder and the master of a distinctively English school of type-founding. He had able successors in his descendants, and good pupils in Jackson and Cottrell. Baskerville acknowledged his obligation to him in words, as did Alexander Wilson and many others practically, in attempts at imitation. His influence may be seen in the work of Fry and Martin, in Figgins and Miller, in Besley and Reed, all of whom have done good service in maintaining the reputation of English types. Of all these (except the last named), and more, Mr. Reed has given us good description in his handsomely printed book, which we lay down with regret. It is the first time that we have had the pleasure of seeing the records of an artistic industry treated in so exact a manner and with such intelligent method. We wish there was more of it.

Treating his subject as one of history only, Mr. Reed has little to say about the comparative merits of old and new types. We wish that he had more strongly directed attention to the radical differences between the strong and simple types of the Elzevirs, Caslons, and Foulises, and the more carefully made, but more indistinct, types that have been in fashion for fifty years past. He could have told us that the good punch-cutters of the last century were content to keep themselves in the background, not obtruding their own personality, yet never forgetting that the first requisite in types is the simplicity of readableness. The modern punch-cutter seems determined to show more of himself than of his subject; to show how truthfully he can turn a curve or taper a stroke, how invisibly sharp he can make a hair-line, how cunningly he can repeat in every character some pretty mannerism which may testify to his skill, but which makes the types confusing in the combinations of composition. The needs of reader and printer are not considered at all. By men of imperfect or even of ordinary eyesight, these refinements of letter-cutting, which

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make letters hazy or foggy, will always be regarded as inexcusable impertinences.

Another reflection follows. This history of the slow growth of an artistic industry shows how little government, either of the state or of the trade union, has done or can do for its development. There are lessons in this book to be studied. We live in a time when there is great clamor for legislative interference with trades. We are told that trades must have more protection. There must be penalties for the importation of workmen; practically prohibitory duties on the importation of manufactures. Boys must not be allowed to learn trades unless they have been indentured. Employers shall have only a limited number of apprentices. Workmen shall not practise a trade until they have become members of their trade society. If we do not limit the number of workmen in a trade by the restriction of apprentices, our mechanical arts will die—and much more of the same tenor. Mr. Reed's book shows (but too sketchily) that all these nostrums have been tried, and all have failed. The more Government "protected" typography, the worse its condition. The more the trade-union spirit restricted the teaching of the art, the worse the skill of the workmen. The men who did the most to make England eminent for good type-founding—Moxon, Caslon, Baskerville, Wilson, and Jackson—were self-taught, never apprenticed to the branch of the art in which they became famous; men who made their way, not under the protection of trade unions, but in defiance of their laws.

The Dawn of British Trade to the East Indies, as recorded in the Court Minutes of the East India Company, 1599-1603. Containing an account of the formation of the Company, the first Adventure, and Waymouth's Voyage in search of the Northwest Passage. Now first printed from the original manuscript. By Henry Stevens of Vermont. With an Introduction by Sir George Birdwood, Kt., C.S.I., M.D. London: Henry Stevens & Son. 1886. xxiv and 332 pages.

In no field of human activity to which we may turn our eyes do we see so much to convince us of the unity of history as when we survey the trade of the West with India and the East. As commerce binds nations into peaceful and profitable relations, so it is a strong tie connecting successive generations and centuries. In the earliest civilization of Babylonia the Indian trade is a conspicuous feature, and from that time until the present day the "wealth of Ormus or of Ind" has been at once an immense attraction to the West and a wonderfully effective instrument in promoting its development. The commercial activity of Rome might decline when it ceased to be the capital of the Empire, the Empire itself might stagger and shrink under the irresistible advance of the barbarians, but commerce lived on even in the darkest ages. The people of Narbonne and Marseilles kept up the traditions of their fathers; the founders of Venice, even in the sixth century, were noted for the *spatia infinita* traversed by their seamen. In Gaul, in the Merovingian age, the Syrian merchants were to be seen in every considerable town, and passing to and fro both on land and sea. So frequent was the intercourse between Syria and Gaul that St. Simeon Stylites at Antioch availed himself of the opportunity to send by the merchants his salutations to St. Genevieve at Paris. So at least we are informed by St. Genevieve's biographer. In the tenth century Amalfi began a career of brief brilliance, soon to be checked by the Normans, but her place was promptly filled by Pisa and Genoa, and not much later Barcelona is to be added to them.

The life of these cities, so different from that of the rest of Europe, so prophetic of the character of the modern age, was darkened by the evil of the time. As dukes, counts, and barons warred among themselves like sovereign princes, so these cities manned navies to destroy each other. The greatest struggle took place between Venice and Genoa. If Venice establishes the Latin Empire, Genoa plans to help the restoration of the Greeks. Together they might have repelled the Turk, but, divided, they smoothed his path. Yet from these fierce contests one may form an idea of the richness of the prize for which they fought. It was the Eastern trade, and the Eastern trade meant the supplying of all Europe with such products as aloes, balsam, sandalwood, Brazil wood, camphor, cinnamon, cardamon, cassia, cloves, cochineal, frankincense, ginger, gum lac, indigo, ivory, ladanum, mastic, musk, mace, nutmegs, nutgalls; pearls, emeralds, turquoises, rubies, sapphires, diamonds; pepper, rhubarb, saffron, raw silk; porcelain, sugar, damask, gold and silver thread, samite, camelet, and other rich cloths. Even such a partial list of the articles of import from the East cannot fail to give one a profound impression of the significance of that commerce. But the Eastern trade led to far greater results than the enrichment of the Mediterranean cities and the diffusion of Oriental luxuries in the West. We might, perhaps, do well to say "necessaries," too, for in the absence of many of the common vegetables which impart variety to our tables, our ancestors endeavored to give zest to their dishes by a lavish use of spices; ginger, cloves, cinnamon, and, above all, pepper, were in great demand. Thorold Rogers tells us that the English put pepper even in pastry.

So general was the market for these Indian products that the prices always ranged high and the profits were immense. There was, in fact, a constant premium for the discovery of some new and cheaper route for this trade. In 1291 Ugolino Vivaldi of Genoa and one of his brothers, in company with Tedisio Doria and some of their fellow-citizens, fitted out two galleys to reach India by the ocean. The two Vivaldis commanded the expedition. One of the ships was wrecked; the fate of the other is shrouded in mystery. To speculate what would have been the effect upon the world's history if the heroic Vivaldi had had the good fortune of Vasco de Gama, would be interesting but fruitless. The temptation to such adventures, however, increased. As the fifteenth century wore on, the Turks enveloped the Levant and gained control over the chief routes of commerce. Heavy passage-tolls and the risk of robbery made spices enormously dear. Visions of infinite wealth set men's minds to thinking more than ever of the possibility of a western route to India. The more learned were familiar with the view of the ancient philosophers, that India could be reached by sailing west, or Spain from India by sailing eastward. The combination of events could have but one issue, and in the last decade of the century two heroic attempts were made to solve the problem. De Gama succeeded, and the news of the arrival of some ships in the Tagus with spices caused a panic in the Venetian market. Machiavelli sent word to Florence that the price of all the Indian products in stock there immediately fell more than one-half. The noonday of Venice was passed. De Gama succeeded, but Columbus, in his desire to seek the land of spices by sailing to the west ("deseo de querer pasar adonde nacen las especerias"), changed the face of the world. The India trade had opened the way for the ultimate creation of a commerce far greater than it had ever been; yet it retained its importance in men's eyes, and nearly four centuries of effort to find a northwest passage illustrates at once the pressure which bore upon Columbus and his contemporaries, and the wonderful part the India trade has played in the history of the world.

The harvest which Spain and Portugal reaped from the discoveries, though rich, was but short-lived; the great and permanent advantages fell into the hands of the English race. It is the last act of this great drama to which the volume at the head of this article directs our attention. This record of the first four years of the activity of "The Governor and Company of Merchants of London trading to the East Indies," as is justly remarked in the introduction, discloses the beginnings of the later triumphs of England in the East. In these pages we discern the thoroughly practical and commercial aims of the Company. Their first minute is dated September 22, 1599, but the act of incorporation was not granted till December 31, 1600. The profit on the early voyages rarely fell below one hundred per cent., and was generally about two hundred per cent. These records, resolutions, and accounts are here "printed as a labor of love, under the direction and at the charge of the late Mr. Henry Stevens" of Vermont, to whose well-directed energy and enthusiasm the cause of American history owes so much. In accordance with his desires, they have been reproduced with the most painstaking accuracy, even "in the minutest particulars of spelling and contractions," so that, apart from its historical value, the volume cannot fail to interest students of the English of that age. Mr. Henry N. Stevens has supplied a most exhaustive and valuable index of forty-five closely-printed pages (the records occupy only 283 pages), which is in fact an analysis of the contents of the volume. For example, the article "Northwest Passage" currently summarizes everything in the book appertaining to this subject. This is certainly a very great convenience for the student.

A very readable introduction has been contributed by Sir George Birdwood of the India Office. One of his notes, however, is rather extraordinary. He refers to the well-known passage, in the preface of Seneca's 'Quæstiones Naturales,' where the philosopher remarks that from Spain to India is "paucissimorum dierum spatium, si navem suus ventus implevit" (a voyage of a very few days with a fair wind), and adds, "This, I believe, is now brought to light for the first time in this connection [*i. e.*, among ancient suggestions of a westward route]." It seems almost incredible that a writer on the history of geography should at this day make an independent discovery of a passage that has been known to every respectable geographer for six hundred years. Hardly less remarkable is it that Sir George Birdwood, after his discovery, could repose in the childlike belief that no one else had called attention to the passage, or that no critical suspicion prompted him to consult some common source of information, like Humboldt's 'Examen Critique de l'histoire de la Géographie du Nouveau Continent.' There he would have discovered that this passage was not only known to Columbus, but had exercised a great influence upon his thinking, and that Roger Bacon, if any one, deserves the credit of having "brought it to light for the first time." Furthermore, Sir George Birdwood seems to take the passage as a statement of knowledge on Seneca's part, whereas it is evidently a philosophical reflection on the smallness of the earth compared with the universe and the realm of the mind. The statement is put absolutely for rhetorical effect.

This volume must not be dismissed, however, without mentioning that it is an elegant specimen of printing, such as one always expects from the Chiswick Press, and that it embodies those sound principles of bookmaking so well laid down by Mr. Stevens in his trenchant little essay, "Who Spoils our New English Books."

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Sir Philip Sidney. By J. A. Symonds. [English Men of Letters.] Harper & Bros. 1887.

We have before remarked upon the difficulty Mr. Symonds finds in writing a little book, and in this volume, as in his recent 'Life of Ben Jonson,' one observes the frequent complaint of lack of space, the confused interchange of a general and particular treatment, the ends left loose, and all the signs of a writer too fluent and too much in haste to study out and observe the fit proportions of a small but noble subject. The materials for 'Sidney's Life' are not great, and the substance of them is easily transferred to new pages; this Mr. Symonds has done, and he has expanded the biography proper by extended analysis of the literary works of Sidney, of no special acumen or value, and by some passages of personal criticism. In the earlier portion he betrays a certain dislike for his hero, whom he thinks unpleasantly grave in his precocity, and neglectful of his boyish privilege as a sower of oats; and he disparages his character, as he goes on, by putting an extraordinary and unjust emphasis upon one rash letter which has come down to us, and on a picked line or two here and there from contemporaries, for the purpose of forcing the inference that Sidney had "faults of temper" and other traits of uncompanionableness. He adopts the view that the sonnets to Stella were addressed to Lady Rich after her marriage, and makes the most of this circumstance as a moral delinquency; in fact, throughout the volume, Mr. Symonds is very anxious to assure us that the sun has spots, and he expresses pleasure in finding Sidney peccable because it gives human nature to him. This is in a familiar vein; but the evidence which Mr. Symonds brings forward for the purpose of conferring "human nature" on the youth best beloved in his own time and idealized ever after, strikes us as slight and scanty, and the tone in which it is advanced is distinctly unfriendly. Mr. Symonds felt from the start that Sidney left to posterity an ideality rather than a personal memory, and he says his "renown transcends his achievement."

But what he did he did remarkably well; he won distinction whenever he was put upon his trial, and both the trial and the distinction were beyond his years. In affairs he was as able as he was scholarly in study and perfect in breeding; his prose is marvellous for sweetness, judgment, and dignity; his poetry is so noble in expression that at its best it mates not unworthily with Shakspere's youthful verse; and no act of his life dims the lustre of his death, which is one of the sacred legends of Christendom. So skilled a master of panegyric as Mr. Symonds has not let this opportunity escape him, and he catches the note of eulogy and builds his own hymn to the young knight; at the end his epilogue, as he calls it, is almost just. It is true, no doubt, that Sidney performed no great deeds, and that what made him the ornament of his time was his character; but it was character shown in daily life, in the little unremembered acts, and it must have been of wonderful outward beauty to have so persuaded men of its lovableness and inward honor. So far as one can recover the incidents and perishable works of his days, in his relations with kindred, friends, the court, the counsellors and scholars of England and with foreigners, it was the life of a chosen man, from its beginning in the singularly admirable care of Sir Henry Sidney and his wife, whose characters had merit to adorn their son's biography, to the composure of his untimely death. Until Milton reached the age of manhood there was no figure in England again at all comparable to Sidney. These two were of the same "happy breed of men," and their felicity lay in their virtue in the days of their youth. The charm of both is moral and essentially the same; and notwithstanding the idealization of them, a close view of their lives still reveals such substance of excellence as justifies the national devotion to their memories. It is a pity that Mr. Symonds's book is not better, and especially is it a pity that he has strained the evidence to dispraise his hero; but there is so much of Sidney in the volume that the presence of his biographer is easily forgotten.

Biographical Annals of the Civil Government of the United States. By Charles Lanman. Second edition, revised, enlarged, and completed to date, by Joseph M. Morrison. New York: J. M. Morrison. 1887.

Lanman's 'Dictionary of Congress,' when published in 1858, if it did not *fill* a long-felt want, at any rate went a long way towards doing so, and its usefulness was greatly increased, in the edition of 1876, through the widening of its field so as to include civil officers who had not been members of Congress. The preparation of both editions involved a vast amount of labor, for the information contained in the sketches had, in most cases, to be sought at first hand. In spite of numerous errors, therefore, the great value of the work has never been disputed. The difficulties in the way of preparation, however, with which Mr. Lanman had to struggle, did not exist for the compiler of the present edition. He says, indeed, that he "was almost overcome by the seemingly innumerable and insurmountable obstacles which constantly appeared in his pathway," but never was such language more uncalled for. All necessary information respecting Congressmen, previous to the last session of the last Congress in which they served, lay ready to his hand in the official 'Congressional Directory,' while, in these days of personal journalism, sketches of all persons appointed to any conspicuous office during the last ten years, written with far more than the requisite detail, could readily have been found in any city newspaper Particularly in the case of the death of a Congressman or other public servant are the details of his previous life accessible not only in the newspapers, but, till recently, in the obituary lists of a work no more unknown than 'Appleton's Annual Cyclopædia,' as well as by means of the *Tribune* Index. Yet Mr. Morrison, though his work seems to have been printed this year, appears not to have known that Charles Francis Adams was dead, or that he had taken any part in public affairs since 1861. Indeed, the number of persons alive in these pages ("brought down to date"), though not elsewhere, is extraordinary. We have been able to test it in but few instances, yet we find no mention made of the death of L. A. Bingham, representative from New Jersey, 1879 81, died 1885 (not even his name is to be found), or the following: J. A. Ahl of Pennsylvania (1882), J. Bates of Maine (1882), Lorenzo Burrows of New York (1885), W. A. Duncan of Pennsylvania (1884), Reuben Ellwood of Illinois (1885), Edward Gilbert of California, killed in a duel in 1852 by the notorious J. W. Denver, J. Z. Goodrich of Massachusetts (1885), Moses H. Grinnell (1877), R. J. Haldeman of Pennsylvania (1885), Artemas Hale of Massachusetts, who died in 1882 at the age of ninety-eight, Robert B. Hall of Massachusetts (1868), E. Jeffords of Mississippi (1885), G. W. Jones of Tennessee (1884), Edward Kent of Maine (1877), Governor and Judge, whose name became familiar throughout the country in the once famous campaign song, "Have you heard the news from Maine?" Scott Lord of New York (1885), W. P. Lynde of Wisconsin 1885), Robert Mallory of Kentucky (1885), Benjamin Moran (1886), D. J. Morrell of Pennsylvania (1885), J. L. Morley (1877), Alexander Mouton of Louisiana (1885, not, as here stated, in 1864), T. H. Murch of Maine (1886), A. S. Murray of New York (1885), Eben Newton of Ohio (1885), Robert Dale Owen of Indiana (1877), John Perkins of Louisiana (1885), Horatio Seymour of New York (1886), John Strohm of Pennsylvania (1884), J. T. Stuart of Illinois (1885), Judge T. R. Westbrook of New York (1885), G. C. Woodruff of Connecticut (1885). Alex. Caldwell, Senator from Kansas, 1871–73, is not mentioned. Neither birth nor death is given of Aaron Kitchell of New Jersey (1744–1820).

In bringing information down to date concerning persons not dead, Mr. Morrison is equally negligent. He does not know, apparently, that Mr. McCulloch was again Secretary of the Treasury under Arthur; that Mr. Kasson was envoy to Germany; that John A. Peters of Maine has been Chief-Justice of that State since his retirement; and various other facts equally interesting to compilers of biographical annals "brought down to date." Moreover, from the first edition are omitted some very convenient tables, as of the successive administrations in one glance, the Presidential electors, the electoral and popular vote at each Presidential election, etc., etc. As a partial recompense the new edition gives the members of the several Congresses from the beginning. The illustrations now first inserted do not amount to much.

Les Origines de l'Ancienne France. Par Jacques Flach. Le Régime Seigneurial (x et xi siècles). I. Paris. 1886.

We have here the first volume of what promises to be a most important work on mediæval history, as may be seen from the following brief summary of the author's outline. The first book is on the origin of the feudal system; the second on the causes of the dissolution of society in the tenth and eleventh centuries. These two constitute the present volume. The third book is to treat of the elements of the reconstruction of society; the fourth, of the formation of a national law by the fusion of the Frank and Roman systems under the influence of the canon law and the local customary law; the fifth, of the general conditions of society in the eleventh century and the evils from which it suffered, private wars, famines, etc. The sixth book, which will be one of the most important in the series, will consider the condition of individuals in law and in fact. It will open with a series of local studies, to be followed by a general view, which will include such matters as the proportion of free and serf lands, of free men and serfs, the state of agriculture, industry, and commerce, and the material conditions of life, food, clothing, etc. The seventh book will be devoted to the intellectual and moral condition of society, and the eighth will show how the communal movement of the next following age had its roots in the eleventh century.

A detailed study of this sort, based upon a full examination of the original sources, could hardly fail to be full of valuable suggestions, though written by a novice or even by a blunderer. But the author of this work is neither of these. He has already won for himself a distinguished position as a teacher and historian of law. It is of value, also, that a book like this comes to us just now from France to reinforce the growing number of careful studies on mediæval history which we owe to its scholars. We have been getting to look almost too exclusively to Germany for work of this sort, and it must be admitted that learning has not yet become so cosmopolitan as to have wiped out all national characteristics from its methods or its results. With the German a fact

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is apt to be the final end of all things, and he often sees it in such a way as to shut out the whole horizon. With the Frenchman, on the other hand, the thing of chief importance is the fact in its relations, and his work is sometimes liable to be a brilliant determination of the relations of a half-known or guessed-at fact. Of the two faults the latter is undoubtedly the worse, but a combination of the two excellences is absolutely necessary to the final product, and any work which combines the two in a marked degree, like this of Prof. Flach's, is to be especially welcomed.

This volume is a very thorough and careful study of the original material, both printed and manuscript. The notes abound in references to these sources, and, what is of especial value to the American student, they contain frequent and full quotations from the texts. The greatest merit of the work is its very fresh and stimulating treatment of old subjects and its occasional new suggestions. The first part, as introductory, treating of the origin of the feudal system in 100 pages, illustrates both merits and defects in perhaps an exaggerated way. The original German *mundium* is identified much too closely with the *clientela* of the Roman Empire. That the two melted together after the conquest is, no doubt, true; but that they were the same in origin or in purpose is not possible. The question of the origin of the *læti* on Roman lands is disposed of, on p. 66, with a suddenness and a decision which take away one's breath who has worried through the lengthy arguments on that subject. It is, again, doubtless possible that the freedom from taxation enjoyed by great estates under the Empire continued after the conquest, and passed from this source into the later immunities; but a book like this, while it should indicate clearly the author's own opinion, should also indicate clearly the degree of uncertainty which the state of the evidence necessarily attaches to any opinion. The same criticism applies, in a somewhat less degree, to the whole treatment of the immunities and the origin of private jurisdiction. It is in this connection, however, that one of the most valuable suggestions of this introductory part is made. It is this, that while the Frank noble acquired the immunity for himself by a gradual process, and the King's charter merely recognized and legalized a completed fact, the Church was so placed that it could not do this, and the immunity had to be created for it by an out-and-out grant, covering both freedom from taxation and from the action of the royal officers within its domains. While it may be reasonably doubted that the lay noble always acquired the immunity in this way, the suggestion is certainly a good one to keep in mind in one's study of the subject. Important, also, is it to remember the fact, to which attention is called, that at the end of the ninth century there existed a strong tendency to change benefices into allodial lands, as well as the tendency in the opposite direction, which is usually assumed to be the only one existing. Of more general interest, perhaps, would be the few paragraphs on the fear of the end of the world in the year 1000, showing how this idea is reflected in the charters as early as the middle of the ninth century, and the vivid conception given us of the lack of general security and the intense desire for peace of those days.

This is by no means a full statement of the new ideas presented or of the points with which one must disagree. The most important point, however, in a book of this sort is not that its conclusions should be indisputable—that is not to be expected from any one at present—but that it should be suggestive and stimulating. It is high praise to say of such a book, as must be said of this, that it will have its greatest value for those already familiar with the literature of the subject.

The Story of Persia. By S. G. W. Benjamin, lately United States Minister to Persia. ["The Story of the Nations."] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1887.

THIS is a very amusing "story" for young folks, but a rather unsymmetrical history. The chapters devoted to the mythical heroes of prehistoric Persia, such as Feridoon, Djemsheed, Zohâk, Minoutchehr, Keï Kaoos, or Siawusch—as our author names them in his medley of English, French, and German spellings—fill eighty pages; all the history of Persia from the Mohammedan conquest in the middle of the seventh century to this day is told in nine pages; the events of the hundred years intervening between the death of Nadir Shah, in 1747, and the accession of Nasr-ed-Din, the present ruler, are narrated in twenty-five lines. Of the latter Shah's long reign not a single event is mentioned, but we are assured that "the progressive tendencies of the present dynasty," combined with the advantages of climate and soil—if we forget deserts and famines—"indicate conditions that promise a renewal of the greatness of Persia when she has emerged from the transitionary period through which she is now passing."

Mr. Benjamin is an enthusiastic believer in the vitality and intellectual eminence of the Persian nation. "Great empires have risen and fallen since the day of Salamis," he correctly tells us in the chapter devoted to Xerxes, "and yet Persia lives." And in order to make this fact the more striking he says, though somewhat less correctly (p. 121): "The battle of Salamis occurred 430 years B. C., or two thousand three hundred and sixteen years ago; and Persia still exists as an independent nation, even though shorn of some of her vast dominions." The wonder is the greater if we consider that the paleness of a figure in the book before him, or some similar defect, made our historian read "430" for 480, and that the battle of Salamis really occurred two thousand three hundred and *sixty-six* years before he penned his admiring sentence. It is a real calamity, from a chronological point of view, that 3 and 8, and also 5, so resemble each other in print and copy that they are apt to play havoc in the pages of authors with short memories for dates and little inclination for research and revision. The blunder would have been avoided had Mr. Benjamin thought of telling his young readers when the battle of Thermopylæ was fought, or that of Platæa: but he did not. A little examination would also have taught him that Xerxes's father, Darius I., did not die "in 479 B. C., in the fortieth year of his reign" (p 111), but six years earlier, and in the thirty-sixth of his reign. Greater attention to proof or copy would have prevented the statement (p. 102) that the name of that King "is in the original Persian . . . spelled Darayavalm" (Darayavush is meant); or the comparison (p. 105) of the failure of the same monarch's expedition to the "vast wastes now called Russia in Europe" with the failures, in the same regions, of Napoleon and "Charles IX."—which stands for Charles XII. of Sweden. Nor would he have called the Scythians Saccæ (pp. 84, 96), Pasargadæ "Passargadæ" (pp. 96, 97), Eran "Erâu" (p. 83), or Bactria "the Bactria" (p. 88). "The Bactria" is, of course, a translation of *la Bactrie*, and there are other indications that our author often relied on French texts—by the by, of pre-Assyriological times; but he does not name any of his authorities, for the following rather facetious reason, stated in the preface:

"It is scarcely worth while to present a list of them here. Those writers who are dead will not be disturbed by any departure from their opinions or any new presentation of the facts they recorded; while living authorities can see for themselves whether the author has agreed or disagreed with their conclusions."

Agriculture in Some of Its Relations with Chemistry. By F. H. Storer, Professor of Agricultural Chemistry in Harvard University. Charles Scribner's Sons. 2 vols., 12mo.

THIS interesting work is a valuable addition to the literature of agriculture. It is a revision of the author's lectures during the last sixteen years to students, young men who are preparing to engage in farming, gardening, etc., and to those who, while purposing to embark in other business, desire to fit themselves for the rational direction and management of a home in the country. It is eminently practical upon the subjects of tillage and fertilization, and it fills a gap which has been open a long time. The works of Prof. Johnson upon 'How Crops Grow' and 'How Crops Feed,' of Prof. Armsby upon 'Cattle-Feeding,' and of Prof. Stewart on 'Feeding Animals' are standard works, and now this one of Prof. Storer comes in to round out the series. The agricultural press of the country holds a most important and useful place in the instruction of those who are now in the field. Farmers who have the confidence which comes from experience and familiarity with their surroundings, can easily select from the miscellaneous matter of their periodicals and enjoy and profit by them. For the beginner, however, systematic books are better, and these very readable and authoritative volumes offer themselves to his need.

Microscopy for Beginners; or, Common Objects from the Ponds and Ditches. By Alfred C. Stokes, M.D. Small 8vo, illustrated. Harpers. 1887.

THIS is a primer for beginners with the microscope, designed to give them some fundamental ideas in regard to handling the instrument, obtaining the minute living objects which it serves to study, and identifying in a general way the commoner forms of microscopic plants and animals most available to the American microscopist. It is intended to take a place in this country which in England, France, and Germany is filled by a variety of well-written and illustrated little handbooks. It makes no pretensions on the scientific side, yet we have observed no serious slips in such matters, and our opinion, after a careful perusal, is that Dr. Stokes has done his work exceedingly well, and that the book should be heartily recommended to those for whom it was prepared. There are rude but sufficiently accurate figures of many microscopic objects most likely to be met with in collecting; references to the literature by use of which the beginner may become a student, if he desires to investigate more seriously; and plenty of convenient and useful hints on all sorts of subjects connected with the microscope and its use.

A series of such primers for the different groups of invertebrates would be very useful, and it is to be hoped may eventually appear. There is no doubt that each book of the kind would do far more to promote a general interest in field natural history than collegiate instruction in the histology of the frog and physiology of the mud-turtle will accomplish in half a century.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adam, J. Platonis Apologia Socratis. Part I. Introduction and Text. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Adams, H. C. Relation of the State to Industrial Action. American Economic Association. 75 cents.
Ames, Miss H. H. Catalogue of the Nevins Memorial Library, Methuen, Mass. Boston. 2 vols.
Antiqua Mater: A Study of Christian Origins. Trübner & Co.
Austin, J. O. The Genealogical Dictionary of Rhode Island; Comprising Three Generations of Settlers who came before 1690. With many Families carried to the Fourth Generation. Providence. $10.
Bond-Walpole. Gai Iuli Cæsaris de Bello Gallico Commentarii. Macmillan & Co. $1.60.
Breul, K. Fabeln und Erzählungen von Lessing und Gellert. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Brewster, Mary Shaw. First Book of Chemistry. D. Appleton & Co. 77 cents.

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Browning, R. Dramatic Lyrics: The Return of the Druses; A Blot in the 'Scutcheon; Colombe's Birthday. Dramatic Romances: A Soul's Tragedy; Luria. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Browning, R. Pauline; Paracelsus; Strafford; Sordello; Pippa Passes; King Victor and King Charles. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.75.
Bury—Hillier. Cycling. Illustrated. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Butler, Dr. J. G. The Bible-Work. The Old Testament. Vol. I. Genesis, Chap. i., to Exodus, Chap. xii. Funk & Wagnalls.
Champlin, J. D., Jr. Chronicle of the Coach; Charing Cross to Ilfracombe. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Colbeck, C. Gai Iuli Cæsaris de Bello Gallico Commentariorum V. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Condon, Capt. E. O. The Irish Race in America. E. & R. E. Ford. 25 cents.
Curry, Lily. "Drops of Blood." J. S. Ogilvie & Co.
Death, J. The Beer of the Bible: A Confirmation of Biblical Accuracy. Trübner & Co.
For Him; or, a Promise Given and a Promise Kept. By Gipsy. Brentano Brothers.
Gilchrist, H. H. Anne Gilchrist: Her Life and Writings. Scribner & Welford.
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